

PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

EXERCISES IN RHETORIC AND ENGLISH COM-
POSITION. *For High Schools and Academies.*
By PROF. G. R. CARPENTER.

EXERCISES IN RHETORIC AND ENGLISH COM-
POSITION. *Advanced Course.* By PROF. G. R.
CARPENTER.

STUDIES IN STRUCTURE AND STYLE. By W. T.
BREWSTER. With an Introduction by PROF.
G. R. CARPENTER.

PRINCIPLES
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR
FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS

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IN COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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PREFACE

THIS volume is intended for use in high-schools by pupils who have already passed through the elementary stages of language study. In preparing it I have tried to include only the essential facts and principles of Modern English inflection and syntax. I have rarely touched on the older forms of the language, though I have endeavored to present the theory or system of the modern language in accordance with the results of philological research, and in such a way that the pupil will have nothing to *un*learn if, at some later time, he begins the interesting study of historical English grammar. I have included in the Appendix a few pages on derivation and composition (prefixes and suffixes) and on prosody. These topics do not necessarily belong to the elementary study of grammar,—or, indeed, in the case of prosody, to the study of grammar at any stage,—but many teachers may wish such information for their classes, and, by force of tradition, expect to find it in this place. The Appendix on Phonology is by Mr. E. H. Babbitt, of Columbia University, the secretary of the American Dialect Society.

I recommend teachers to pass rapidly over Chapters I and II, returning to them at a later time for more detailed study. The pupil's real task begins with Chapter III. I beg leave also to add a word of advice with regard to the teaching of grammar. There are four results—it seems to me—that a young student should gain from his work. He must know, first, the logical method by which we classify words; second, the simple English systems of inflection; third, the main principles of English syntax. Fourth, he must understand thoroughly the structure of the English sentence. All these things a boy or girl can master, under proper direction, in a year or two. Unfortunately, many pupils never master them. They learn grammar by rote, parse almost by ear, “diagram” by a kind of acquired instinct, and never acquire a firm basis for the further study of their mother tongue. I earnestly advise teachers to make sure that their pupils are thoroughly grounded in the *essential principles* of Modern English grammar. Much of this work can be done in the elementary school, where the study of grammar is naturally “subordinate and auxiliary to the study of English literature,” as the Committee of Fifteen has pointed out. But the study of grammar as a system must necessarily be deferred, in my opinion, until the high-school course.

To several friends and colleagues who have aided

me greatly in the preparation of this volume, and in particular to Professor A. V. W. Jackson and Dr. Caskie Harrison, I return my hearty thanks. In certain exercises I have drawn freely, as others have done before me, on the hoard of illustrations contained in Maetzner's famous *Englische Grammatik*. The brief treatment of prefixes and suffixes in the Appendix is based to some extent on Mr. Sweet's account of the subject in his excellent *New English Grammar*.

It only remains to say that I have avoided categorical statements affirming that certain usages occurring frequently in literary and colloquial English are "wrong." It seems to me exceedingly important that pupils should learn to study and judge the facts of language as they at present exist, in a candid and scientific fashion, tabooing only words and expressions that are actually vulgar, and recognizing the natural diversity of usage. It is characteristic of our language that we may, without fear of being misunderstood, use, in many instances, either of two different forms of expression. It is the business of grammar to note and classify these different forms. To choose between them is almost always a question of taste, and questions of taste belong rather to the "art" of rhetoric than to the "science" of grammar.

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PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR



CHAPTER I

GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS

1. WHAT GRAMMAR IS. — 2. TWO DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR: ORTHOËPY AND ORTHOGRAPHY. — 3. ADDITIONAL DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR: (1) CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS; (2) FORMS OF WORDS; (3) SYNTAX. — 4. THE PURPOSE OF GRAMMAR. — 5. HISTORICAL GRAMMAR.

1. **What Grammar is.** — Grammar is a systematic description of the essential principles of a language or a group of languages. Just as astronomy gives a systematic account of the nature and arrangement of the heavenly bodies, describing and classifying them, and explaining, so far as they are understood, the laws that govern them, so English Grammar gives a systematic account of the English language, both as it is spoken and as it is written, describing and classifying its various parts, and explaining, so far as possible, the various customs of speech and writing which have been adopted by those who speak and write English.

2. Two Divisions of Grammar: Orthoëpy and Orthography. — Grammar deals with language, and language may be either spoken or written. It is obvious, therefore, that one part of English Grammar has to do with the ways in which the language is spoken or pronounced, and another with the ways in which the language is written or spelled. The first is sometimes called Orthoëpy (from a Greek word meaning "correct speaking"), and the second Orthography (from a Greek word meaning "correct writing"). (1) Orthoëpy deals with the proper or customary pronunciation and accentuation of English words. This part of the field of Grammar is fully treated in the dictionaries, and need not be taken up in this volume.¹ (2) Orthography, the branch of Grammar which deals with the correct or customary writing or spelling of words, may also be left to the dictionaries, which discuss it in great detail. All that need be said here with regard to either branch is to remind the student of the great authority attached to usage in both spelling and pronunciation. Correct pronunciation or correct spelling must always be understood in the sense of that pronunciation or that spelling which is most widely current among educated people. This explains the fact that there are frequently different opinions with regard to the correct pronunciation or the correct

¹ To one branch of Orthoëpy, however, the pupil's attention should be particularly called, *i.e.*, Phonology, which deals with the classification of spoken sounds. See Appendix, I.

spelling of certain words. Which pronunciation or spelling is preferable may, in some cases, be hard to determine, but the student may at least feel assured that his pronunciation or his spelling can never justly be called wrong when it is in accord with that of a large body of his educated countrymen.

3. Additional Divisions of Grammar: (1) **Classification of Words (Parts of Speech);** (2) **Forms of Words (Inflection);** (3) **Syntax.** — Leaving to the dictionaries Orthoëpy and Orthography, inasmuch as they deal merely with customs of utterance and spelling, and scarcely affect the logical system of the language, we now come to the divisions of Grammar that are of chief importance.

(1) The first important branch of Grammar is that which deals with the classes into which words are divided in accordance with their use. As we shall see, English words may be logically arranged in different groups or classes, such as nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs, according to the various uses that are made of them. Names, for example, such as *John*, *Henry*, *New York*, fall into one group, that of nouns; and words expressing the qualities or characteristics that persons or things possess, such as “a *brave* boy,” “a *fine* day,” “a *black* horse,” fall into another group, that of adjectives. These different groups of words are called the Parts of Speech. Classification is the first essential of Grammar. Indeed, every science must rest on a classi-

tion of the matter of which it treats: it is indispensable, for instance, to botany that it should classify plants and flowers, and to zoölogy that it should classify animals, according to some rational system.

(2) Another important branch of Grammar, Inflection, treats of the changes of form that particular words or classes of words undergo, and the effect of these changes on the meaning of the words. The noun *John*, for example, may appear in the form *John's*, as when we say, "*John's* book"; or in the form *Johns*, as when we say, "both *Johns* were there." The various forms which a word may assume constitute its Inflection. If we would understand our language thoroughly, it is necessary that we should have a clear and complete idea of the systems by which words change their form in order to express different meanings.

(3) A third important branch of Grammar is Syntax, which treats of relations between words. Let us take, for example, the sentences, "the boy is hungry" and "I am hungry." Now it is evident that it is not in accordance with the laws of our language to say "the boy *am* hungry" and "I *is* hungry," though the words *am* and *is* are quite proper in the former set of instances. The reason why we choose one word and not the other, in each case, depends not upon the words themselves, but upon the relation between *boy* and *is* or between *I* and *am*, and therefore belongs to Syntax.

These three parts of Grammar follow one another naturally, and together make up a logical and complete system. When we have classified the words in the language satisfactorily, when we have noted their changes in form, and when we have ascertained the relation which they may bear to one another according to English usage, we shall have covered all of the field of English Grammar that is essential to an understanding of the system of the language.

4. The Purpose of Grammar. — The purpose of Grammar is to make clear the customs, usages, and laws pertaining to a given language. Many persons are so familiar with these usages and laws that they would follow them even if they had never seen them systematically arranged in the form of Grammar. But it will readily be seen that the study of Grammar is of great value, especially to the young, in that it enables any one who gives his mind to it to gain a systematic idea of his mother tongue, and thus to speak it in accordance with the essential principles of the language. Correctness is not, however, the only object we may have in the study of Grammar. Grammar is, like all sciences, an excellent means of training the mind, for it teaches one to observe and to classify.¹ It is, indeed, more valuable in one respect than many other sciences, because it

¹ See also the comment on Grammar as the crystallization of thought in Appendix, V.

is, in a certain sense, the key to all sciences. Grammar deals with the system by which we express our thoughts, and thus not only trains us in systematic thinking, but helps to give us accuracy and facility in the logical expression of thought. Another important reason for the study of Grammar lies in the importance which we attach to the English tongue. When we consider the great literature that is written in our language; when we reflect that it is used not only by seventy millions of our countrymen, but by forty millions of people in Great Britain and Ireland, and by many millions more in the British colonies; when we realize that it is our own language and that of our fathers, and that it is associated forever with the destinies of our race, we shall no more feel contented to remain ignorant of its laws and usages than we should be not to know the history of our own nation and the geography of our own country.

5. Historical Grammar. — It is important not only that we should have a clear and systematic idea of the English language as it exists to-day, but that we should have some knowledge of the language as it was in the days of Shakspeare and Chaucer, and even in times more remote. To learn to read Old English or Anglo-Saxon, as English before the Norman Conquest is called, is almost like learning a new language, and much of what Chaucer wrote, and indeed many words and phrases in Shakspeare, cannot be understood without a knowledge of the language in earlier

centuries than ours. A systematic account of the usages of the English language through the greater part or the whole of its existence, indicating the progress of the language at different periods, and explaining its development, is called Historical Grammar. In this volume it will not be wise to allow ourselves to stray far beyond the boundaries of our own century. We deal here with English as it is written and spoken to-day. For purposes of explanation, however, it may sometimes be necessary to refer to older English forms than those of which we treat.

QUESTIONS

1. What is Grammar? [The teacher is recommended to assist the pupil in distinguishing Grammar from rhetoric, which deals with the most effective means of expressing ourselves clearly, forcibly, and beautifully, and from logic, which deals with the most effective means of expressing ourselves logically, *i.e.*, without incorrect reasoning. Grammar, it should be noticed, is largely concerned with the classification of words and with customs prescribing the use of certain forms of words under certain circumstances. Rhetoric, on the other hand, deals with the precise force of words and the principles that guide us in combining them effectively. See also Appendix. V.] 2. Why do we exclude spelling and pronunciation from our present study? On what authority do "correct" spelling and "correct" pronunciation rest? 3. What branch of Grammar do we first consider? Why? What is inflection? What is syntax? Why should these divisions of Grammar be treated in the order stated? 4. What reasons make the study of Grammar important? 5. What is Historical Grammar? Is it difficult? Why?

CHAPTER II

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

6. THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES. — 7. THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES; LOW GERMAN. — 8. OLD ENGLISH OR ANGLO-SAXON. — 9. MIDDLE ENGLISH. — 10. MODERN ENGLISH. — 11. THE LANGUAGE OF LITERATURE, THE LANGUAGE OF CONVERSATION, AND THE LANGUAGE OF THE PEOPLE.

6. The Indo-European Family of Languages. — Languages that have a common source are said to belong to the same family. The relationship of all the languages of the world has not yet been satisfactorily determined, but scholars of this century, after an almost incredible amount of labor, have succeeded in discovering much about the relationship to one another of the languages that form the two most important families—the Semitic family and the Indo-European family. The relationship between these two families, however, still remains wholly unknown. To the first family belong Hebrew, the language in which the greater part of the Old Testament is written, and Arabic, which is widely used in various parts of Asia and Africa. To the second, the Indo-European family, belong several languages of India and Persia, and almost all the European languages. The common ancestry of all

the languages of this family establishes the fact that the peoples who first used them were in the remote past near neighbors, or else offshoots of a people who spoke a parent language, from which all the separate languages have been in large measure derived. This set of neighboring tribes or this parent people, who, according to some theories, lived in Southern Russia or in adjacent parts of Asia, and from whom emigrant bands broke away to inhabit India, Persia, and different parts of Europe, is usually known as the Aryan people. The whole great family is most appropriately called Indo-European, inasmuch as the ancient Indian tongues are regarded as the best representatives of the original Aryan speech, of which we have only indirect knowledge. It is also sometimes called Indo-Germanic, on account of the prominence in Europe of the Germanic or Teutonic peoples. Indo-European, however, is the preferable name.

7. The Teutonic Languages: Low German. — Of the European languages which belong to the Indo-European family there are several sets or groups, the members of which bear a close resemblance to one another. One group is that of the Celtic languages, that is, those spoken by the various Celtic tribes which occupied Western Europe and the British Isles. To this group belongs Welsh, the language of the ancient inhabitants of England; the native Irish, or Erse; and Gaelic, the language of the

Scottish Highlanders. A second group is that of the Italic languages, to which belongs Latin, as well as the modern Romance languages (such as Italian, Spanish, and French), which are founded on Latin. Of most importance to us is a third group, that of the Teutonic languages, or those belonging to the kindred Teutonic or Germanic peoples, — the Germans, the Dutch, the Flemish, the Danes, the Swedes, the Norwegians, and the Icelanders. This large group we may, for our present purpose, divide into three main branches, — (1) the Scandinavian branch, comprising the Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic languages; (2) the High German branch, represented by modern German, a descendant of the language originally spoken by the part of the race which lived in the *highlands* of Europe; and (3) the Low German branch, comprising the languages spoken by the inhabitants of the *lowlands* near the coast. To this third branch belong Dutch, Flemish, and Old English or Anglo-Saxon, the language of the Angles, the Saxons, and the other Teutonic conquerors of England.

8. Old English, or Anglo-Saxon. — The original inhabitants of England belonged to the Celtic race, were called Britons, and spoke a language somewhat like Welsh. They were conquered by the Romans, who made Britain a province of the Roman Empire, built roads and towns, and carried on mining and a considerable commerce. The great bulk

of the Celtic population, however, was uninfluenced by Roman civilization, and only slight traces of Latin were left in the British language. In the fifth century, when the Roman military occupation ceased, the island relapsed into its previous condition of barbarism, and was in the course of a century overrun and conquered by three closely allied Low German tribes, — the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. The Britons were driven into the west and north of the island. Those who remained under English rule were made slaves. The different dialects spoken by the conquering tribes then became the language of the country. From very early times, however, these tribes agreed in calling themselves Angles (English). Their language thus became known as English.

Old English is the English used before the French-speaking Normans conquered the island, and changed the language so radically. It is very often called Anglo-Saxon, that is, the language of the English Saxons¹ as distinguished from that of the German Saxons, but the term Old English is preferable. Old English took a number of words from the language of the conquered tribes (mostly names of places, such as *Aberdeen*, “mouth of the Dee”), just as we have taken names of places (such as *Mississippi*, “the father of waters”) from the

¹ After the Norman conquest it became customary to speak of the older Teutonic inhabitants as Saxons. The term English covered both Normans and Saxons.

Indian languages. These Celtic words included a few of Latin origin (such as *Chester*, that is, *castra*, "camp"), which the Britons had acquired from the Romans. Old English also took other words directly from the Latin (such as *mountain*, *cook*, *altar*, *bishop*, *mass*), especially after the introduction of Christianity, for Latin was the official language of the Church. Through the strong Danish influence it also acquired certain Scandinavian words (such as family names ending in *son*, e.g., *Johnson*, and names of places ending in *by*, e.g., *Whitby*). But English remained essentially unaltered until after the Norman conquest, when the French language began to exercise an important influence over it.

9. Middle English. — The Norman conquerors of England were Scandinavians by origin, but they had been for a century and a half settled in North France, had intermarried with the people of the country, and spoke a dialect of the French language. For a century and more after the settling of the Normans in England, there were two languages spoken there, — French by the Normans, English by the native English population. Gradually, however, the two parts of the population became less distinct, and the two languages were fused into one. The new English which the amalgamated population spoke we call Middle English, because it is the second of the three great historical divisions of the language, *i.e.*, Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.

Middle English is most familiar to us through Chaucer, who wrote in the fourteenth century, and was the greatest writer of the period. Middle English is distinguished from Old English by the loss of some of the older forms of inflection (§ 27), though the syntax of the language still remained essentially Teutonic, and by the addition of a very large number of words derived from the French. The importance of this last fact is great. Though our language is the English language, there are more words in it of foreign than of English origin. Many of these words come directly from the Latin, which has had a strong influence on English, but an even greater number come to us indirectly from the French, which, on account of the supremacy of the Normans and on account of the close relations for centuries between France and England, exercised a very powerful influence on the English vocabulary. Now, the French vocabulary comes, in great measure, from the Latin, so that the majority of English words are directly or indirectly of Latin origin. In such a sentence, for instance, as "the majority of secondary schools do not prepare pupils for entrance to college," *majority, secondary, schools, prepare, pupils, entrance, college*, all come, directly or indirectly, from the Latin. The smaller words, however, such as we use in almost every sentence we make, — *the, for, that, and, but*, for instance, — as well as a large number of our common, homely words, are of native origin. In the line, "It was the schooner Hesperus that sailed the

winty sea," for example, all the words except *Hesperus* are native English words.¹

10. Modern English. — About the time of Shakspeare the language took on its modern characteristics. It lost still more of its inflections, it acquired a host of new words through the Latin, and it drew largely from almost all the modern European languages, and from many tongues besides. Modern English is, to a very large degree, London English, for the great English capital, from Chaucer's period down, has naturally, through its literary, political, and social ascendancy, made its form of the language prevail in English speech and writing. London English has thus become what we may call the *standard* English of the British Empire and of the whole English-speaking race. In the spoken or written English of the United States, where relations with England are necessarily less close than those existing between Canada or Australia and England, many slight divergences have arisen from the spoken and written English of England. These are due to changes of customs in both countries, to the introduction of new words and expressions, more especially in the United States, and to the tendency in each country to depart in minute particulars from the original common basis. There has thus arisen in the United States a slightly different standard, that of the language as it

¹ For the difference in effect between native English words and words of Latin origin, see Hill's *Principles of Rhetoric*, pp. 96-102.

is spoken and written by educated Americans. The differences between the two varieties of standard English consist, however, in minute details of accent, pronunciation, idiom, and usage, and though they are sometimes striking, they are relatively slight, and can in no way be regarded as affecting the general character of the language.

11. The Language of Literature, the Language of Conversation, and the Language of the People.—The student must be prepared to find written English differing in some slight particulars from spoken English. In conversation, for instance, we habitually use such contractions as *don't*, *shan't*, *won't*, and many familiar words and expressions which are rarely found in more dignified discourse or in print. There are, moreover, many English words and expressions, such as *hain't*, *worser*, which are not employed, even in conversation, by educated speakers. We have, then, three kinds of English, each differing to a certain degree from the others: (1) *literary* English, or the words and constructions which we use in writing; (2) *colloquial* English, or the forms which we use in conversation; and (3) what we may call *vulgar* (from the Latin *vulgus*, crowd) English, *i.e.*, English used, whether in speech or in writing, by the great mass of the uneducated, on whom the vocabulary and constructions used in literature have no great influence.¹

¹ Vulgar English also includes dialect. A dialect, such as Scotch, is a local form of the language, greatly at variance with ordinary usage

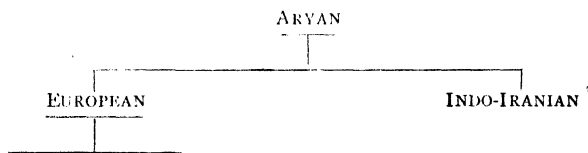
This grammar undertakes to deal chiefly with literary English, though it frequently refers to colloquial English, and sometimes to vulgar English, for illustration or explanation.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a family of languages? To what family does Hebrew belong? What is meant by the Aryans? By the Indo-European languages? Why is the term Indo-European preferable to the term Indo-Germanic? 2. Name two main groups of the Indo-European languages. To which group does Welsh belong? To which Swedish? Name two branches of the Teutonic group. To which does Swedish belong? To which Dutch? 3. The Old English vocabulary was influenced by that of two nations who held power in England before the Anglo-Saxons, and two who held power after. Name them, and state the historical facts to which these influences were due.

and spoken throughout a district. There are a number of dialects in England, and there are several in America, as, for example, that of the Pennsylvania "Dutch," though in the United States the difference between standard (§ 10) English and local English is far less striking than in Great Britain. The student should bear in mind that "vulgar" English, in the sense that we give the word, is not necessarily a term of reproach. Dialectic expressions are often very beautiful and interesting, especially when they are dear to us by association or have been consecrated, as it were, by centuries of local usage. Vulgar English, as we shall see, is often a survival of what was in its day good literary and colloquial English. The distinction between literary and vulgar English is frequently a matter of taste. The student should be encouraged to notice dialectic forms, to inquire into their origin, and to discuss the difference in effect between them and the corresponding expressions in literary or colloquial English. He should avoid vulgar English when it is ignorant, slovenly, or brutal; but he should not forget that even from the scorned speech of the vulgar have often sprung words and constructions that have been admitted into literature. This process is always going on. The whole subject is treated at length in works on rhetoric.

4. Name the three great periods of the English language. What writer do you associate with the second? What is his greatest work? How did the English vocabulary of the second period differ from that of the first? With what other group of languages might English possibly be classed, from one point of view, on account of this difference? 5. Where is modern English spoken? Why, and to what degree, does it differ in different localities? What may be regarded as standard English? 6. Distinguish from one another literary English, colloquial English, and vulgar English. What is a dialect? Mention several dialects in English. 7. Continue the process begun in the "tree" given below, so as to show graphically the families, groups, and branches to which English belongs, and indicate, if you can, in some similar way, the chief foreign influences that were brought to bear upon Old English.



CHAPTER III

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

12. PLAN OF PROCEDURE.—**13. THE NECESSITY OF CLASSIFICATION ; THE PARTS OF SPEECH.**—**14. THE NOUN.**—**15. THE ADJECTIVE.**—**16. THE PRONOUN.**—**17. THE VERB.**—**18. THE SUBJECT OF A VERB.**—**19. THE OBJECT OF A VERB.**—**20. THE ADVERB.**—**21. THE PREPOSITION.**—**22. THE CONJUNCTION.**—**23. THE INTERJECTION.**—**24. THE SAME WORD AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.**—**25. GROUPS OF WORDS AS PARTS OF SPEECH ; CLAUSES ; PHRASES.**

12. Plan of Procedure.—The first part of Grammar which we shall consider in this volume is the classification of words (Parts of Speech) according to their uses. The second part is that which treats of the changes of form which are made in words to indicate differences in meaning (Inflection). The third part is Syntax, which has to do with the relations that words bear to one another when employed in sentences.

13. The Necessity of Classification ; the Parts of Speech.—Grammar does not aim to give an account of each separate word in the language. That is the purpose of a dictionary. Its object is rather to make clear the system or theory of the language. Exactly as in an account of an army one would not pretend, except for some unusual purpose, to discuss

the personal history or characteristics of every officer and private, but only to make clear the use and character and organization of each group in the army, — the infantry, cavalry, and artillery, for instance, — so, in our account of the English language, it will be our first duty to reach a satisfactory classification of English words according to their various uses or functions. Words that are names of persons, places, objects, or things, we call nouns; words that make assertions we call verbs, proceeding in this manner until we have exhausted the list of possible uses to which words may be put. The Parts of Speech, then, are the classes into which words fall when they are arranged according to their uses or functions.

14. The Noun. — Names of persons, places, or objects we call nouns. *John, Abraham Lincoln, San Francisco, Mississippi*, and all similar words which designate persons or places, fall obviously into this group, as well as *dog, lion, water, gold*, and the enormous number of words that designate tangible objects. But *virtue, whiteness, charity*, though they do not denote tangible objects, are still to be included in this group, because they are name-words for qualities or things in the abstract. It is scarcely necessary to add that it is not the thing or person — the knife, the dog, the lion — that we call a noun, but the name of the person or thing, the word *knife, dog, lion*.

In the following passage the nouns are printed in italics :

"Our *sport* was indifferent. The *fish* did not bite freely, and we frequently changed our *ground* without bettering our *luck*. We were at *length* anchored close under a *ledge* of rocky *coast*, on the eastern *side* of the *island* of *Manhatta*. It was a still, warm *day*. The *stream* whirled and dimpled by us, without a *wave* or even a *ripple*, and everything was so calm and quiet that it was almost startling when the *kingfisher* would pitch himself from the *branch* of some high *tree*, and after suspending himself for a *moment* in the *air*, to take his *aim*, would souse into the smooth *water* after his *prey*. While we were lolling in our *boat*, half drowsy with the warm *stillness* of the *day* and the *dulness* of our *sport*, one of our *party*, a worthy *alderman*, was overtaken by a *slumber*, and, as he dozed, suffered the *sinker* of his drop *line* to lie upon the *bottom* of the *river*. On waking, he found he had caught something of *importance* from the *weight*. On drawing it to the *surface*, we were much surprised to find it a long *pistol* of very curious and outlandish *fashion*, which, from its rusted *condition*, and its *stock* being worm-eaten and covered with *barnacles*, appeared to have lain a long *time* under *water*." — IRVING: *Tales of a Traveller*.

15. The Adjective. — Words used to limit or modify the meaning of nouns we call adjectives. For example, the nouns *coast* and *side* in the second sentence of the passage printed above would apply equally well, if taken by themselves, to all coasts or all sides that could be found or imagined. The word *rocky*, however, limits the meaning of *coast*, so that it applies, not to all coasts, but only to those coasts which are rocky, just as the word *eastern* limits the meaning of the noun *side*, so that it can no longer apply to all sides of the object in question, but only to that particular side which the prefixed word indicates.

In like manner, in the same passage, *still* and *warm* limit *day*, *high* limits *tree*, *worthy* limits *alderman*, and *long*, *curious*, *outlandish*, *rusted*, and *long* limit the nouns *pistol*, *fashion*, *condition*, and *time*. The adjective is, therefore, not an independent word. Its distinguishing trait is that it is always used to limit another word, which it usually precedes, and that other word is always a noun or its equivalent.

Three cautions with regard to adjectives must be added. First, in such phrases as *the farmer's sheep*, the pupil must notice that, though *farmer's* limits the meaning of *sheep*, it is not therefore an adjective. The use of the word is like that of an adjective, but it is primarily a noun, inasmuch as it is a name-word. *Farmer* is, then, a noun, and is here used in a particular form, the possessive case, having, as all nouns in that case have, an adjectival force; but it has not ceased to be a noun, nor does it strictly belong to the group that we call adjectives. Second, nouns may sometimes be used as adjectives, as in "a *drop* line" (in the passage above), "a *gold* cross," "a *Mississippi* boat," "a *football* game." Each of these limiting words might, under other circumstances, be used as a name-word, as, for example, in "a single *drop*," "a search for *gold*," "a glimpse of the *Mississippi*," "a game of *football*." Third, adjectives are sometimes used as nouns. We speak of "a *brave* man" and "a *fair* woman," using the words *brave* and *fair* as adjectives. But we also say, "none but the *brave* deserves the *fair*." Here *brave* and *fair* may be

taken as adjectives, limiting *man* and *woman* understood. It is better, however, to class them as adjectives used as nouns, just as a moment ago we classified certain words as nouns used as adjectives. In English the same word may often be used, at different times, in two or more ways as different parts of speech, and we act in harmony with the genius of our language when we classify a word according to the way in which it is used in a given instance, not according to the way in which it might be used in some other instance.

EXERCISE

1. In the following passage the principal adjectives are printed in italics. Find (1) the nouns they limit, and (2) the nouns which are not accompanied by adjectives.

"His body, which was nearly *naked*,¹ presented a ² *terrific* emblem of death, drawn in *intermingled* colors of white and black. His closely *shaved* head, on which no other hair than the *well-known* and *chivalrous* scalping-tuft was preserved, was without ornament of any kind, with the exception of a *solitary* eagle's plume that crossed his crown and depended over the *left* shoulder. A tomahawk and scalping-knife, of *English* manufacture, were in the girdle; while a *short military* rifle, of that sort with which the policy of the whites armed their *savage* allies, lay carelessly across his *bare* and *sinevy* knee. The *expanded* chest, *full-formed* limbs, and *grave* countenance of this warrior would denote that he had reached the vigor of his days, though no symptoms of decay appeared to have yet weakened his manhood."

— COOPER: *The Last of the Mohicans*.

¹ An adjective sometimes follows its noun. Here the sense is, His body, which was nearly [a] naked [body].

² *An*, *a*, and *the* form a special class of adjectives called articles. We shall later treat them in detail.

2. In the following passage find (1) the nouns, (2) the adjectives :

"Sweet was the sound, when oft at evening's close
Up yonder hill the village murmur rose ;
There, as I passed with careless steps and slow,
The mingling notes came softened from below ;
The swain responsive as the milk-maid sung,
The sober herd that lowed to meet their young ;
The noisy geese that gabbled o'er the pool,
The playful children just let loose from school ;
The watch-dog's voice that bayed the whispering wind,
And the loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind ;
These all in sweet confusion sought the shade."

— GOLDSMITH: *The Deserted Village*.

16. Pronouns. — Words used instead of nouns, referring to a person or thing without naming him or it, we call pronouns. In such a sentence as "I bought it of him for her," *I*, *him*, and *her* refer to three persons supposed to be known to the reader, without naming them, and *it* to some equally well-known object. If the name-words which are here represented by pronouns were inserted, the sentence might read, "the father bought a toy of the dealer for his daughter." The class of pronouns is a small one, and will be later described in detail. The chief pronouns are *I*, *me*, *we*, *us*, *you*, *he*, *him*, *she*, *her*, *it*, *they*, *them*.

[It is more important, at this stage, that the pupil should be trained in distinguishing nouns and adjectives, as in the preceding exercise, and verbs, subjects, and objects, as in the following exercises, than in distinguishing pronouns. The passages quoted on pages 25 and 26 may, however, be used for an exercise on pronouns.]

17. Verbs. — Words with which we make statements or assertions we call verbs. It will at once be apparent that no nouns, no names, can constitute a statement. Adjectives and pronouns are equally powerless. *Men, brave, they*, either separately or when placed together, do not make an assertion. If we add the word *are*, however, we can make a complete assertion, “they are brave men.” Here *are* is a verb; so is *waves* in “the flag waves over land and sea,” and *whistles* in “the wind whistles through the trees.” Remove these words, and you have nothing but combinations of other parts of speech, which may together suggest an idea, but cannot actually express an idea. A verb may consist of two or even more words in conjunction, as “he *may have been injured*”; “he *should have come* earlier.”

18. The Subject of a Verb. — Verbs make assertions or statements, and assertions or statements must always be made about a person or a thing. The noun (or its equivalent) about which an assertion is made by means of a verb is called the subject of the verb. The verb itself is called the predicate (*i.e.*, that which asserts). In the sentences, “the boy runs”; “the boy was hurt by a falling timber”; “the boy is too ill to walk,” different assertions are made about the noun *boy*, which is the subject of the verbs *runs*, *was hurt*, *is*, though in the last case the verb *is*, which is of a peculiar sort, is not capable of making by itself a complete assertion, and has to

be supplemented by other words. The subject of a verb may always be ascertained by placing *who* or *what* before the verb, and forming a question. Thus, if we ask, "who runs?" "who was hurt?" "who is [ill]?" the answer, *boy*, indicates that that noun is the subject of each of the verbs.

EXERCISE

1. In the following passage the verbs are italicized. Find (1) the nouns which are their subjects; (2) other nouns; (3) the adjectives.

"The frame of the white man *was* like that of one who *had known*¹ hardships and exertion from his earliest youth. His person, though muscular, *was* rather attenuated than full; but every nerve and muscle *appeared* strung and indurated by unremitted exposure and toil. He *wore* a hunting-shirt of forest green, fringed with faded yellow, and a summer cap of skins which *had been shorn* of their fur. He also *bore* a knife in a girdle of wampum, like that which *confin'd* the scanty garments of the Indian, but no tomahawk. His moccasins *were ornamented* after the gay fashion of the natives, while the only part of his underdress which *appeared* below the hunting-frock *was* a pair of buckskin leggings that *laced* at the sides, and which *were gartered* above the knees with the sinews of a deer. A pouch and horn *completed* his personal accoutrements, though a rifle of great length *leaned* against a neighboring sapling. The eye of the hunter, or scout, whichever he *might be*, *was* small, quick, keen, and restless, roving while he *spoke*, on every side of him, as if in quest of game, or distrusting the sudden approach of some lurking enemy. Notwithstanding the symptoms of habitual suspicion, his countenance *was* not only without guile, but at the moment at which he *is introduced*, it *was charged* with an expression of sturdy honesty." — COOPER: *The Last of the Mohicans*.

¹ The subject of the verb is here the pronoun *who*. In some of the following sentences the pronouns *which*, *he*, *that*, and *it* are the subjects of verbs.

2. In the following passage pronouns and nouns which are the subjects of verbs are italicized. Find the verbs.

"*We* came from the place where the *sun* is hid at night, over great plains where the *buffaloes* live, until *we* reached the big river. There *we* fought the Alligewi, till the *ground* was red with their blood. The *Maquas* followed at a distance. *We* said the *country* should be ours from the place where the *water* runs up no longer on this stream, to a river twenty suns' journey toward the summer. The land *we* had taken like warriors, *we* kept like men. *We* drove the Maquas into the woods with the bears. *They* only tasted salt at the licks; *they* drew no fish from the great lake; *we* threw them the bones."

— COOPER: *The Last of the Mohicans*.

19. The Object of a Verb. — Verbs most frequently represent action, as in "the bullet *struck* the mark," and they often represent actions as directly affecting persons or things. Nouns (or their equivalents) which represent persons or things as thus affected are said to be the objects of verbs. Not all verbs have objects. Thus, in "the bird sang sweetly," there is no noun that is represented as being acted on by the verb. The object of a verb, if it has one, may always be ascertained by placing *whom* or *what* before the verb, and framing a question. Thus, if in the sentences, "he saw nothing," "he puffed his pipe in silence," we ask "*whom* or *what* did he see?" "*whom* or *what* did he puff?" we shall recognize that *nothing* and *pipe* are the objects of *saw* and *puffed*. The student may be at first puzzled by such sentences as "there he was seen," "his cabin was rudely constructed," where *he* and

cabin might perhaps be supposed to be the objects of the verbs *was seen* and *was constructed*, because *he* and *cabin* are the objects affected by the action of the verb. On analysis, however, it will be seen that *he* and *cabin* represent the things about which the assertion is made; they answer the questions, "*who* was seen?" "*who* or *what* was constructed?"

EXERCISE

In the following passage the verbs are italicized. Find (1) their subjects; (2) their objects.

"The beach *shelved* gradually within the cove, but the current *swept* deep and black and rapid along its jutting points. The negro *paused*, *raised* his remnant of a hat, and *scratched* his grizzled poll for a moment, as he *regarded* this nook; then suddenly clapping his hands, he *stepped* exultingly forward, and *pointed* to a large iron ring, stapled firmly in the rock, just where a broad shelf of stone *furnished* a commodious landing place. It *was* the very spot¹ where the red-caps *had landed*. Years *had changed* the more perishable features of the scene; but rock and iron *yield* slowly to the influence of time. On looking more closely Wolfert *remarked* three crosses cut in the rock just above the ring, which *had* no doubt some mysterious signification. Old Sam now readily *recognized* the overhanging rock under which his skiff *had been sheltered* during the thunder gust."

— IRVING: *Tales of a Traveller*.

20. The Adverb. — Words that limit or modify the meaning of verbs we call adverbs. For instance, in the sentences, "he rushed *madly*," "he called *yesterday*," "he sang *well*," we classify as adverbs the words *madly*, *yesterday*, and *well*, which limit the

¹ The teacher is recommended to call the pupil's attention to the fact that *spot* is not the object of *was*.

meaning of the verbs *rushed*, *called*, and *sang* in much the same way that adjectives limit nouns. Adverbs limit the meaning of verbs by indicating the manner in which, the time at which, or the extent to which the action represented by the verb takes place. Adverbs may also limit adjectives, as in "*very* brave," "*exceedingly* strong," or even other adverbs, as in "he sang *very* well." The student must at this stage be satisfied if he gets an idea of the main use of the adverb. It is often a puzzling part of speech, and we shall later study it in detail.

21. The Preposition. — Words used to show the relation between nouns or pronouns and other words (nouns, pronouns, adjectives, or verbs) we call prepositions. Such words as *to*, *from*, *at*, *by*, *with*, fall into this class. When we say, "I came *from* the city," "I went *to* the city," "I live *in* the city," "I rode *through* the city," we indicate, in each case, by the italicized word, the relation existing between *city* and the verb of the sentences. As in the case of adverbs, a more detailed explanation must be postponed until we have examined with care some of the other parts of speech.

22. The Conjunction. — Words that connect words, groups of words, or statements, we call conjunctions. In "bread and butter," "cavalry and infantry," *and* connects pairs of nouns; in "safe and sound" it connects a pair of adjectives; in "around and through the house," a pair of prepositions; in "he

sought him long and earnestly," a pair of adverbs; in "he admired and respected him," a pair of verbs. In the following instances the italicized conjunctions connect statements or assertions: "the man is friendless *and* I take him under my protection," "the hunter was a powerful man, *but* he was only an infant in the hands of his enemy," "I left you *because* it was necessary," "stay here *until* I call you," "keep quiet *if* you value your life." A further analysis of the nature and use of conjunctions must be postponed to a later chapter.

23. The Interjection. — Exclamatory words, expressive of sudden emotion, we call interjections. In written English an interjection may, in most cases, be easily recognized in writing by the presence, either directly after it, or at the end of the sentence in which it occurs, of an exclamation point (!). The following are common interjections: *oh, ah, hurrah, pshaw, alas.*

24. The Same Word as Different Parts of Speech. — It should again be noticed (see § 15) that in English the same word may often be used, at different times, in two or more ways, as two or more different parts of speech. It is a fundamental principle of the language that words are not necessarily distinguished by their forms as filling one or another function in a sentence. It is only by observing with care the way in which a word is used that we may determine what part of speech it is. In "get up

steam," for example, *steam* is a noun, in "steam up the river" it is a verb. In the same way *fish* is a noun in "he caught many fish," a verb in "I will fish it out of the stream," and an adjective in "a fish dinner." The student cannot too clearly bear in mind the fact that the classification of words as parts of speech is largely artificial. The parts of speech represent certain ways of using words, and a word is to be placed in one group or another, not because of any peculiarity of its own, but because it is sometimes or regularly used in such and such a way.

25. Groups of Words as Parts of Speech; Clauses; Phrases. — We have now roughly described the system by which we are accustomed to classify single words according to their uses. It is only necessary to add that often groups of words may also be classified in the same way. For example, in "*that he should be there* surprises me greatly," the group of italicized words is the equivalent of a noun, or a noun-group, and is the subject of *surprises*. Similarly, we may have adjective-groups, adverb-groups, etc. As we discuss each of the parts of speech in turn, we shall also discuss the groups of words which may serve as its equivalent.

It will be convenient for the student to bear in mind the terms *clause* and *phrase* as applied to groups of words. Groups of words containing a subject and a predicate are called clauses, *e.g.*, *that he should be there; if he comes; whoever he is*. Groups of words

that do not contain a subject and a predicate are called phrases, *e.g.*, *at last*, *to conclude the matter*.

EXERCISE

I. In the following passage the words in certain groups are connected by hyphens. Tell which groups are phrases and which clauses.¹

“Within-our-beds awhile we heard
The wind that-round-the-gables-roared,
With now-and-then a ruder shock,
Which-made-our-very-bedsteads-rock.
We heard the loosened clapboards tost,
The boardnails snapping in-the-frost;
And on us, through-the-unplastered-wall,
Felt the light sifted snowflakes fall.
But sleep stole on as-sleep-will-do
When-hearts-are-light and [when]-life-is-new.

— WHITTIER: *Snow-Bound*.

II. In the following passage, find (1) the nouns, (2) the adjectives, (3) the verbs, (4) the subjects, (5) the objects:

“The companion of the church dignitary was a man past forty, thin, strong, tall, and muscular; an athletic figure, in which long fatigue and constant exercise seemed to have left none of the softer part of the human form, having reduced the whole to brawn, bones, and sinews, which had sustained a thousand toils, and were ready to dare a thousand more. His head was covered with a scarlet cap, faced with fur — of that kind which the French call *mortier*, from its resemblance to the shape of an inverted mortar. His countenance was therefore fully displayed, and its expression was calculated to impress a degree of

¹ This short exercise is intended only to fix in the pupil's mind the difference between a phrase and a clause. Practice in distinguishing the equivalence of phrases and clauses to various parts of speech will be given in succeeding exercises.

awake, if, not of fear, upon strangers. High features, naturally strong and powerfully expressive, had been burnt almost into negro blackness by constant exposure to the tropical sun, and might, in their ordinary state, be said to slumber after the storm of passion had passed away; but the projection of the veins of the forehead, the readiness with which the upper lip and its thick black moustaches quivered upon the slightest emotion, plainly intimated that the tempest might be again and easily awakened. His keen, piercing, dark eyes told in every glance a history of difficulties subdued and dangers dared, and seemed to challenge opposition to his wishes, for the pleasure of sweeping it from his road by a determined exertion of courage and of will; a deep scar on his brow gave additional sternness to his countenance, and a sinister expression to one of his eyes, which had been slightly injured on the same occasion, and of which the vision, though perfect, was in a slight and partial degree distorted."

—SCOTT: *Ivanhoe*.

CHAPTER IV

INFLECTION, DERIVATION, AND COMPOSITION

26. INFLECTION. — 27. LOSS OF INFLECTIONS IN ENGLISH. — 28. DERIVATION. — 29. COMPOSITION.

26. Inflection. — We have now completed our classification of words into parts of speech. The work has been done only very roughly, however, and we shall soon return to the matter again, taking up each part of speech in turn, and examining it with great care. We must now consider a subject that pertains to several of the parts of speech, that of inflection. We inflect a word when we change its form in such a way as to modify its meaning. By changing a vowel, for example, we make of the singular noun *man* the plural noun *men*. By slight additions we make *man's* from *man* and *men's* from *men*. From *run* we may make *runs*, *ran*, *runnest*, and *running*. It should be noticed, however, that inflectional changes do not make new words, but simply other forms of words. That is, we feel that *horses* is merely a different form of *horse*. The change, which in this instance consists in adding *s*, serves a grammatical purpose, *i.e.*, that of distinguishing between the singular and the plural, and may be applied to almost all English nouns. The inflection

of a noun is sometimes called its declension; the inflection of a verb is called its conjugation.

* **27. Loss of Inflections in English.** — It is important that the pupil should notice that English uses but very few changes of form to denote different meanings of words. In Latin there were separate forms of the verb “love” to express “I love,” “he loves,” “we love,” “you love,” and “they love.” In English we use only two forms of the verb, *love* and *loves*, to express all these different meanings. Some languages have even different forms of the verb to denote whether a man or a woman is represented as acting; that is, for example, separate forms of the verb for “he loves” and “she loves.” Old English, though not so rich in inflections as some other languages, had at least twice or three times as many inflectional forms as modern English. The Old English noun *scip* (pronounced “skip”), for instance, meaning “ship,” had not only forms which corresponded to our *ship's*, *ships*, and *ships'*, but two additional forms, which were used where we use such phrases as “to the *ship*,” “to the *ships*.” Modern English, however, has done away to a great extent with these numerous inflections by making inflection more regular, that is, by inflecting all words in the same way, so far as possible, and by dropping almost all inflections that are not strictly necessary.¹

¹ Old English, like Latin or Greek, was a *synthetic* language (from Greek words meaning “putting together,” or “adding”), *i.e.*, one that expresses shades of meaning, and denotes relations between words,

28. Derivation. — Besides inflection, we have ~~an~~ other method of changing a word so as to alter its meaning.^a Derivation is the process by which a word is changed from one part of speech to another, or from one meaning to another quite different. By a slight change the adjective *true* becomes the adverb *truly*, or the noun *truth*, and that becomes the adjective *truthful*, and that the adverb *truthfully* or the noun *truthfulness*. In similar ways we make *untrue*, *untruly*, *untruthful*, *untruthfully*, and *untruthfulness*. In like manner *sing* becomes *song*, *singer*, and *songster*; *good* becomes *goodly* and *goodness*; *child* becomes *childlike*, *childish*, *childishly*, and *childishness*. The important differences between inflection and derivation are, first, that inflection modifies the meaning of a word, while derivation gives it a distinctly different meaning, or turns it into another part of speech or kind of word; and, second, that inflection is a much more regular process than derivation. In order, for example, to make nouns refer to more than one person or thing, we regularly (with

largely by means of inflection. The appropriateness of the term lies in the fact that in inflection a letter or syllable is usually added to the word that serves as a basis. Modern English, like modern French or German, is called an *analytic* ("analyzing" or "separating") language, because it denotes relations between words, to a very large extent, by the use of separate words. Thus, the Romans said *amavisset* where we say "he would have loved." English enjoys the distinction of having freed itself from ancient and unnecessary inflections to a greater degree than any other language. As a result, our grammatical system is exceedingly simple, presents few irregularities, and does not burden the memory.

only a very few exceptions) add to them the ending *s* or *es*. But although there are many common methods of derivation, we cannot say that any one of them is regularly used. We form *truth* from *true* and *warmth* from *warm*, but we cannot form a similar noun from *good*, *tall*, or *short*. We form *piggish* from *pig*, but *elephantine* from *elephant*; from *good* we make *goodness*, but from *honest* not *honestness*, but *honesty*. We shall return to this subject later (Appendix, II), classifying the principal means by which derivation is carried on, but the pupil will do well to bear in mind the general statements made above, and to notice for himself how common the process of derivation is.

29. Composition. — There is still a third method by which changes in the form of words are brought about in English; that is, by composition. In composition two or more words, each of which has an independent meaning, are combined or compounded to form a new word. *Black* and *bird*, for example, has each its own meaning. The phrase “black bird” denotes any bird that is black, such as a crow or a raven. A “blackbird,” however, is not any bird that is black, but a particular species. Composition is a favorite method of word-making in English. The pupil has only to refer to a dictionary to see what a multitude of words is formed by combination with words like *back*, or *blood*, or *head*. Indeed, there are comparatively few com-

mon nouns that are not freely used in composition. It is necessary to add that in many compounds we have lost sight of the original meaning of one or both of the words. *Breakfast*, for example, is the meal at which we break our longest fast; *Monday* is "Moonday," and *nightingale* (Old English, *nihtegale*) is "night-singer." We sometimes use for purposes of composition words that do not have an independent existence. There are no such words in our language as "Anglo" and "phobia," and yet we have the compounds *Anglo-American*, *Anglo-Indian*, *Anglomaniac*, and *Anglophobia*.

EXERCISE

Define, in your own words, inflection, derivation, and composition, distinguish them one from the other, and illustrate your statements by examples from the passage quoted on page 25.

CHAPTER V

NOUNS: KINDS OF NOUNS

- 30. KINDS OF NOUNS. — 31. PROPER NOUNS AND COMMON NOUNS. —**
32. COLLECTIVE NOUNS. — 33. ABSTRACT NOUNS AND CONCRETE
NOUNS.

30. Kinds of Nouns. — It is necessary to bear in mind that not only the names of persons and material things are nouns, but also the names of immaterial things. *Eternity, virtue, space*, for example, are nouns, even though the things of which they are the names are intangible conceptions and not tangible persons or objects. The almost countless names of "things" we may group in five classes, (1) proper nouns, (2) common nouns, (3) collective nouns, (4) abstract nouns, and (5) concrete nouns.

31. Proper Nouns and Common Nouns. — Proper nouns are names in the strict sense of the term, *i.e.*, words which actually serve as the marks or names of persons and places, such as *John Smith, Robinson Crusoe, Andover, New York, Germany*. The object of the proper noun is to distinguish, so far as possible, the person or place it designates from all other places or persons. The proper noun is, therefore, a mark of identification, though this does not necessarily mean that each individual or place has a name that it

does not share with any other individual or place. There are many John Smiths, for example, and there is an Andover in each of several states of the Union. A common noun, on the other hand, is one that is applied to a group of persons or things because they are alike or possess qualities in common. *Dog*, for instance, is the name of a whole group or class of animals. Any noun that can be applied to an indefinite number of things, such as *man*, *hat*, *water*, *fire*, *book*, *land*, is called a common noun.

By a change in use or meaning proper nouns sometimes become common nouns. We may speak, for example, of a philosopher as "a modern *Aristotle*," or of a city as "the *Athens* of America," or of a great soldier as "the *Alexander* of his time," in which cases the nouns *Aristotle*, *Alexander*, and *Athens* are no longer names designating particular persons or places, but merely nouns denoting one member of a class of philosophers like Aristotle, conquerors like Alexander, or cities like Athens. Again, proper nouns become common nouns when things receive the names of persons who make or invent them, or of places from which they come. We speak of "a *Steinway*" and "a *Chickering*," meaning pianos made by celebrated manufacturers; of *china* and *calico*, meaning the familiar articles first known to Europeans through China and Calicut in India; of "a *Havana*" and "a *Manilla*," meaning certain kinds of cigars. We speak, too, of "a *louis*," "a *napoleon*," "a *guinea*," meaning pieces of money

named for a man or a place. On the other hand, we sometimes make a common noun the equivalent of a proper noun, as in "*Father* told me to give you this," "the *President* has asked to see you," where *Father* and *President* denote particular individuals. In such cases, however, it is the context or circumstances that limit the natural meaning of the words and give them a special value, and we cannot really say that the words themselves have been changed from common nouns into proper nouns.

32. Collective Nouns. — Most nouns denoting tangible things designate only one object at a time. *Ship* may refer to any object of the class mentioned, but it actually refers in each instance to the particular object to which reference is made. Collective nouns are those which represent, not a single object of a class, but a group of similar objects. *Fleet, library, nation, swarm, herd, drove, army*, are all collective nouns naming a unit composed of obviously smaller units.

33. Concrete Nouns and Abstract Nouns. — Common nouns may be divided into concrete nouns and abstract nouns. All common nouns denoting objects that are perceived by our senses, or that can be thought of as perceived by our senses, are called concrete nouns. *Man, gold, night, noise*, are concrete nouns. On the other hand, we call abstract nouns those that designate a quality, a state of mind, a process or action. *Saint, sage, thief, ruin*

(as in "I visited the *ruin*"), *opening* (meaning an aperture), are concrete nouns; but *sanctity*, *wisdom*, *theft*, *ruin* (as in "the *ruin* of his fortune"), *opening* (as in "the sudden *opening* of the door"), are abstract nouns. A distinct peculiarity of the abstract noun is that, as it is the name, not of a real or imagined thing, but of a quality that things possess, or a state in which they exist, or a process through which they pass, it cannot usually be found in the plural. We cannot say *patiences*, *honesties*, *badnesses*, *destructions*, because there is only one quality, or state, or process called *patience*, *honesty*, *destruction*. We may, indeed, speak of *ambitions* or *wickednesses*, but we really use the words in a slightly different sense, as designating various objects or kinds of ambition and various acts of wickedness.

It is often necessary to look sharply at the meaning of a noun in order to decide whether it is abstract or concrete. In "*distance* lends enchantment to the view," "*length* is the quality to be desired in this case," "*kindness* is his chief characteristic," *distance*, *length*, and *kindness* are abstract nouns. In "the *distances* are great," "the boat won by several *lengths*," "I am indebted to him for many *kindnesses* (*i.e.*, acts of kindness)," *distances*, *lengths*, and *kindnesses* are concrete nouns, because in the latter instances the words no longer stand for qualities. The distinction between abstract and concrete, indeed, belongs to the study of logic rather than of grammar, and it is not worth while for a student to

perplex himself greatly about it. He should notice carefully the following passage, in which the abstract nouns are printed in italics, but he should not be encouraged or required, at this time, to make any fine distinctions between the two classes of nouns.

“Our Royalist countrymen were not heartless, dangling courtiers, bowing at every step, and simpering at every word. They were not mere machines for *destruction*, dressed up in uniforms, caned into *skill*, intoxicated into *valor*, defending without *love*, destroying without *hatred*. There was a *freedom* in their *subserviency*, a *nobleness* in their very *degradation*. The *sentiment* of individual *independence* was strong within them. They were indeed misled, but by no base or selfish *motive*.¹ *Compassion* and romantic *honor*, the *prejudices* of childhood, and the venerable names of *history*, threw over them a *spell*¹ potent as that of Duessa; and, like the Red Cross Knight, they thought that they were doing battle for an injured beauty, while they defended a false and loathsome sorceress.” — MACAULAY: *Essay on Milton*.

EXERCISE

1. In the following passages find (1) the common nouns, (2) the proper nouns, (3) the collective nouns, (4) ten abstract nouns, (5) twenty concrete nouns:

(a) “Neither military nor civil pomp was wanting. The avenues were lined with grenadiers. The streets were kept clear by cavalry. The peers, robed in gold and ermine, were marshalled by the heralds under Garter King-at-Arms.² The judges in their vestments of state attended to give advice on points of law. Near a hundred and seventy lords, three-fourths of the Upper House as the Upper House then was, walked in solemn order

¹ It is hard to determine whether these nouns can best be classed as abstract or concrete. They do not denote tangible objects, nor, on the other hand, do they denote qualities, states, or processes.

² *Garter King-at-Arms*, the title of an official.

from their usual place of assembling to the tribunal. The junior Baron present led the way, George Eliott, Lord Heathfield, recently ennobled for his memorable defence of Gibraltar against the fleets and armies of France and Spain. The long procession was closed by the Duke of Norfolk, Earl Marshal of the realm, by the great dignitaries, and by the brothers and sons of the King. Last of all came the Prince of Wales, conspicuous by his fine person and noble bearing. The gray old walls were hung with scarlet. The long galleries were crowded by an audience such as has rarely excited the fears or the emulation of an orator." — MACAULAY: *Warren Hastings*.

(b) "Nay, do not the elements of all human virtues and all human vices; the passions at once of a Borgia and a Luther, lie written, in stronger or fainter lines, in the consciousness of every individual bosom, that has practised honest self-examination? Truly, this same world may be seen in Mossiel and Tarbolton, if we look well, as clearly as it ever came to light in Crockford's, or the Tuileries itself." — CARLYLE: *Burns*.

(c) "While the Shakspeares and Miltons roll on like mighty rivers through the country of Thought, bearing fleets of traffickers and assiduous pearl-fishers on their waves; this little Valclusa Fountain will also arrest our eye: for this also is of Nature's own and most cunning workmanship, bursts from the depths of the earth, with a full gushing current, into the light of day; and often will the traveller turn aside to drink of its clear waters, and muse among its rocks and pines!" — CARLYLE: *Burns*.

(d) "First, the people of the Colonies are descendants of Englishmen.¹ England, sir, is a nation, which still, I hope, respects, and formerly adored, her freedom."

— BURKE, *Speech on Conciliation with America*.

II. Give nouns standing for groups of fish, soldiers, vessels, legislators, disorderly people, sheep, quail, cattle, horses, musicians.

¹ The student should notice that *Englishman* stands midway between a common noun and a proper noun. It denotes one member of a class, just as the common nouns *bear* and *river* do; on the other hand, it denotes the native or inhabitant of a particular locality, and so acquires the force of a proper noun.

III. (a) Give nouns standing for the qualities ¹ possessed by things that are white, old, long, broad, clear, pure; of men that are brave, cowardly, ignorant, wise, foolish, fat. (b) For the state or condition of slaves, freemen, saints, boys, men, children, infants, beggars.

¹ This question and the following deal with abstract nouns, and belong strictly to logic or rhetoric rather than to grammar.

CHAPTER VI

NOUNS : GENDER

- 34.** SEX AND GENDER. -- **35.** WAYS OF DENOTING GENDER. --
36. GENDER DENOTED BY INFLECTION. -- **37.** GENDER DENOTED
 BY COMPOSITION. -- **38.** GENDER DENOTED BY THE USE OF SEPA-
 RATE WORDS. -- **39.** PERSONIFICATION.

34. Sex and Gender. — Gender is the grammatical distinction between words, or forms of words, to denote sex. Nouns like *man*, *son*, *ox*, which designate males, and males alone, are said to be of the masculine gender. Nouns like *woman*, *daughter*, *cow*, which designate females, and females alone, are said to be of the feminine gender. There are not many nouns in English which are of the masculine or the feminine gender. Most English nouns which denote persons or animals, such as *thief*, *bird*, *baker*, do not attempt to indicate whether the persons or animals to which they refer are males or females. Such nouns are usually said to be of common gender, though it would be more sensible to say that they are of neither gender, or of the neuter gender. The latter term, however, is usually reserved for nouns like *stone*, *tree*, *grass*, which denote inanimate objects, with regard to which distinctions of sex or gender cannot be made.

It is a marked characteristic of our language that it does not lay stress on distinctions of sex, recognizing that, for the most part, it makes no difference in the sense of what we say whether the beings to which we refer are male or female. Most European languages, on the contrary, give genders even to many or all inanimate objects. In Latin, "table" was feminine, "book" was masculine, and "river" neuter. In French, "knife" is masculine and "fork" is feminine. In German, "chair" is masculine, "door" is feminine, and "window" is neuter. In Old English, distinctions of gender were equally artificial. "Finger" was masculine, "hand" was feminine, and "woman" neuter. Our unwillingness to make artificial distinctions of sex with regard to inanimate objects adds greatly to the sensible and practical character of our language.

In Modern English, all nouns representing lifeless objects without sex are neuter (except in the rare instances where such objects are personified: see § 39), and are referred to by the pronoun *it*. Masculine nouns are referred to by *he*, feminine nouns by *she*. Inasmuch as we have no pronoun of common gender, nouns of common gender, such as *cousin*, are usually referred to by either *he* or *she*, according to the sex, if that be known. When the sex is not known, or need not be emphasized, it is customary to use *he*, giving the masculine gender the prominence. Thus we say, "If any *person* in the audience wishes further information, I shall be

glad to furnish *him* with it." When it is necessary to make it plain that the reference covers both sexes, we use both pronouns, as in "I shall be glad to furnish *him* or *her* with it." Animals and children are referred to by *he*, *she*, or *it*. Thus we speak of a lion or a child as *it*, when we refer to it as a mere thing, as *she* when we wish to designate it as of the female sex, and as *he* when we wish to designate it as of the male sex, or, sometimes, when we do not care to specify the sex. Large wild animals we usually refer to as *he*; with regard to common domestic animals the custom differs: we are apt to speak of horses and dogs as *he* and of cats as *she*.

It should be borne in mind that a noun of common gender does not become masculine or feminine because it is referred to by a masculine or feminine pronoun. *Person* is a noun of common gender, whether it be referred to as *he* or *she*; *child* is a noun of common gender, whether it be referred to as *he*, *she*, or *it*.

35. Ways of Denoting Gender. — In English there are three ways of denoting differences in gender: (1) by inflection, (2) by composition, and (3) by the use of separate words.

36. Gender denoted by Inflection. — (1) *The suffix ess.* The addition to a masculine noun of the suffix *ess* is the most usual means of marking the feminine gender by inflection, as in *god*, *goddess*; *shepherd*,

shepherdess. Sometimes the feminine form has been shortened by the omission of a vowel or syllable, or otherwise slightly changed, as in *abbot*, *abbess*; *hunter*, *huntress*; *lad*, *lass* (from *laddess*); *marquis*, *marchioness* (following *marchio(n)*, the form of the masculine in mediæval Latin); *master*, *mistress* (following *Mr.* [Mister], another form of *master*).

(2) *The suffix ster*. A common feminine suffix in Old English was *ster*. In Middle English, however, this termination lost its feminine force. Now *spinster* (originally a woman who spins) is the only word in *ster* that is applied only to women. A number of trade-names preserving this termination, such as *Webster* (originally a woman who weaves), *Brewster* (a woman who brews), *Baxter* (a woman who bakes), have become family names. When *songster* and *seamster* (now an obsolete word) became regarded as masculine nouns, another feminine termination was added, and we have *songstress* and *seamstress*.

(3) *Other suffixes*. *En* is the only other English feminine suffix, and that appears only in the word *vixen*, which was originally the feminine of *fox*. Other feminine suffixes appear, however, in words taken directly from foreign languages. Several Latin words, such as *testator*, *executor*, *administrator*, retain their Latin feminine forms, *testatrix*, *executrix*, *administratrix*. In *heroine* we retain a feminine form which was taken from the French, but which goes back to the original Greek. The German title *landgravine*, the feminine of *landgrave*, retains a Dutch

feminine termination. *Sultana* is the feminine of *sultanus* (mediæval Latin, "sultan"). *Czarina*, *infanta*, *signora*, and similar words are to be regarded as feminine nouns borrowed from other languages rather than as English words.

37. Gender denoted by Composition. — Another method of denoting gender, which has almost entirely grown up since the loss of gender-inflection, is that of designating the masculine and the feminine by joining to the words in question others that indicate sex unmistakably; thus we say *he-goat*, *she-goat* (sometimes, colloquially, *billy-goat*, *nanny-goat*), *man-servant*, *maid-servant*, *cock-sparrow*, *hen-sparrow*, *bull-elephant*, *cow-elephant*. Indeed, this method is that which we naturally use in making distinctions in gender which are not already provided for in the language. We sometimes use the feminine termination *ess* in such cases, as in the recent word *authoress*. But literary English disapproves of even that word, and such forms as *doctress*, *teacheress* (on the analogy of *governess*) are found only in vulgar English. The better usage in all such cases consists in prefixing the word *woman* or *lady*, or in employing another form of statement. Thus we may say, "the firm employs three *female stenographers*," though this would usually be felt to throw unnecessary prominence on the sex; or "three *woman stenographers*"; or "three *lady stenographers*," though the last phrase, like the frequently heard *lady friend*, is to be classed with col-

loquial or vulgar English, on account of the wholly unnecessary emphasis which it throws on the gentility of the persons referred to. It would be more in accordance with the principles of the language to say merely, "the firm employed three *stenographers*," just as we say, "she has acquired some reputation as an *author*" (not *authoress*), neglecting entirely the distinction of sex; or, if the distinction of sex is important, "the three *stenographers* that the firm employs are *women*."

Bridegroom (literally "bride's man") is a curious instance of a masculine formed from a feminine by composition. *Woman* was originally "wife-man," that is, "female-man."

38. Gender denoted by the Use of Separate Words. —

A number of pairs of words has grown up in English, usually denoting the masculine and the feminine of a certain species of animals, or distinguishing sex in the relations of domestic or social life. The principal pairs of this sort are: (of animals) *bull* or *ox*, *cow*; *boar*, *sow*; *buck*, *doe*; *bullock* or *steer*, *heifer*; *colt* (masculine or feminine), *filly* (feminine); *cock* or *rooster*, *hen*; *drake*, *duck*; *drone*, *queen-bee* (compare the preceding section); *gander*, *goose*; *hart*, *roe* or *hind*; *ram*, *ewe*; *sire*, *dam*; *stallion*, *mare*; (in the relations of domestic or social life) *father*, *mother*; *grandfather*, *grandmother*; *uncle*, *aunt*; *husband*, *wife*; *son*, *daughter*; *boy*, *girl*; *nephew*, *niece*; *bachelor*, *maid* or *spinster*; *king*, *queen*; *monk*, *nun*; *wiz-*

ard, witch; man, woman (see preceding section); *lord, lady; sir, madam*. It should be kept in mind that the words that make up each pair are generally derived from two separate sources, and are rarely formed from a single word.

39. Personification. — We have noticed that English has the advantage of being able to neglect distinctions of sex, when they are not important for the purpose in hand. We may speak of a woman as a successful *actor* (rather than *actress*), or as a brilliant or beautiful *actress* (rather than *actor*), according as the distinctive qualities of sex are ignored or emphasized. For the purpose of emphasizing qualities associated with either sex, we may also make the distinction of sex where it does not really exist. We may speak, for instance, of a city or a ship as *she*; of faith, hope, war, death, particularly in poetry, as *she* or *he*. This process of giving to things without sex a characteristic confined to persons, is called personification, and a noun so treated is usually begun with a capital letter, to show that, for the purposes of the imagination, it has become a personal name, or a proper noun. It should be remarked, however, that in such cases no change is made in the grammatical form of a word by inflection or composition to denote that it is to be regarded as a person.

EXERCISE

1. (a) What is the gender of each of the following nouns? Parent, child, man (in "man is mortal"), man (in "that man

is my brother"), fish, spinster, butler, mare, heiress, he-goat, empress, heroine, executrix, heifer. (*b*) By what pronoun (*he*, *she*, or *it*) would you refer to each? If more than one pronoun could be used, state the circumstances in which each pronoun could be used, and give an illustration. (*c*) Write, in your own words, a short account of the ways by which the feminine gender is indicated in English, illustrating your explanation by words taken from the list.

2. State whether each noun in the following passages is masculine, feminine, common, or neuter.

- (*a*) "'Tis the clime of the East; 'tis the land of the Sun —
Can he smile on such deeds as his children have done?"
- (*b*) "To that high Capital where kingly Death
Keeps his pale court in beauty and decay
He came."
- (*c*) "And others came. Desires and Adorations; . . .
And Sorrow, with her family of Sighs;
And Pleasure, blind with tears, led by the gleam
Of her own dying smile."

CHAPTER VII

NOUNS: NUMBER

40. NUMBER.—41. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL: ADDITION OF *s*.—42. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL: ADDITION OF *en*.—43. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL: INTERNAL CHANGE.—44. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL: FOREIGN PLURALS.—45. NOUNS HAVING THE SAME FORM IN BOTH NUMBERS.—46. NOUNS SINGULAR IN FORM, BUT TREATED AS PLURAL.—47. NOUNS PLURAL IN FORM, BUT TREATED AS SINGULAR.—48. NOUNS RARELY USED IN THE PLURAL.—49. NOUNS USED ONLY IN THE PLURAL.—50. NOUNS THAT HAVE TWO MEANINGS IN THE PLURAL.—51. PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS.—52. PLURAL OF LETTERS AND SIGNS.

40. Number.—Inflection to denote gender is, as we have seen, not very common in English. A much more frequent use of inflection is that by which we denote number, that is, by which we make it evident whether we are speaking of one person or thing or of more than one person or thing. Nouns (or pronouns) which denote one person or thing are said to be in the singular number; nouns (or pronouns) which denote more than one person or thing are said to be in the plural number. Collective nouns (see § 32) are in the singular number; for, though they represent several persons or things, they represent them in a single group, and that group may be made plural, as when we speak of “the enemy’s *fleets*.”

41. Formation of the Plural: Addition of *s* or *es*. —

The ordinary method of forming a plural in English is that of adding *s* or *es* to the singular. There are only two classes of nouns that do not follow this method: (1) survivals of older English usage, which retain older inflectional forms, and (2) foreign nouns, which frequently retain their foreign plurals. Both classes we shall take up in detail in subsequent sections. Whether *s* or *es* is to be added is determined by the sound. In the plural of nouns ending in a hissing sound (such as *bush*, *box*, *church*, *gas*, *topaz*), *s* could not be pronounced were it not preceded by *e*.¹

Some nouns ending in *f* follow an old English usage in changing *f* to *v* in the plural, e.g., *beef* (an ox, bull, or cow, from the French), *bceves*; *calf*, *calves*; *elf*, *elves*; *half*, *halves*; *knife*, *knives*; *loaf*, *loaves*; *shelf*, *shelves*; *thief*, *thieves*. *Staff* (a stick) sometimes forms a plural *staves*, particularly in old-fashioned English, though in its more modern meaning, as in "*a general's staff*," it makes the regular plural *stuffs*. The plural of *wharf* is either *wharfs* or *wharves*, but the preference is now usually given to the former, in accordance with the genius of our language, which is opposed to retaining irregularities in inflection.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* before adding *es*, as *body*, *bodies*. Nouns end-

¹ The termination *es* in the plural is pronounced *ez*, except in the foreign nouns mentioned in § 44. *S* is pronounced *z* whenever it is possible, e.g., *horses*(*z*), but *cats*. The plural of some nouns ending in *th* may be pronounced in either way, e.g., *paths*(*z*) or *paths*.

ing in *quy* follow the same rule, as *soliloquy*, *soliloquies*, *qu* being regarded as a consonant. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, on the contrary, form their plural regularly by adding *s*, as *boy*, *boys*; *valley*, *valleys*.

Nouns ending in *o* are somewhat peculiar in the formation of their plurals. Those longest established in the language, *cargo*, *negro*, *hero*, *volcano*, *potato*, *tomato*, etc., form their plurals in *es*; those which seem most like foreign words — as they in reality are — form their plurals by adding *s*, as *piano*, *soprano*.

42. Formation of the Plural: Addition of *en*. — In Old English many nouns made their plurals in *en*. In Modern English *oxen*, *brethren*, and *children* still retain this ending, though in several dialects other *en* forms still occur, as *hosen* and *shoon* in Scotch. *Brethren* and *children* are likewise peculiar in that they are double plurals. The Old English plurals of *brother* and *child* were *brotheru* and *childru* (still retained in the vulgar or dialectic form *childer*). In the course of time the marks of this plural inflection grew unfamiliar, and the *en* sign of the plural was added. The old plural of *cow* was *cy*, but when that form became unfamiliar, the *en* plural was added, making the double plural *kine*, still used in poetry. An *en* plural of *sister*, used by Chaucer, still appears in the vulgar *sistren* ("brethren and sistren").

43. Formation of the Plural: Internal Change. — Another Old English method of forming the plural

—occurring, however, only with monosyllables — was by changing the vowel of the singular, as in *foot*, *feet*. This method is now preserved only in six words: *foot*, *tooth*, *goose*, *louse*, *mouse*, *man* (*woman*). In this class also may be placed *cow*, because its first plural *cy* was formed in this way. See § 42.

44. Formation of the Plural: Foreign Plurals. — It is natural that foreign words much used in English should make their plurals as English words do, and this tendency towards uniformity should be encouraged as much as possible. From this point of view, we should say *bandits*, *formulas*, *memorandums*, rather than *banditti*, *formulæ*, *memoranda*, though the latter forms are all allowable. Some foreign nouns, however, still retain their foreign plurals. These the student must eventually learn by heart, if he does not know the languages to which the foreign words belong. He may, however, notice with profit that, with the exception of *bandit* (plural, *bandits* or *banditti*), *beau* (*beaus* or *beaux*), *dilettante* (*dilettanti*), there are very few foreign words from the modern languages which retain their foreign plurals. By far the greater part of the nouns forming foreign plurals are from the Latin and Greek. The chief classes are: (1) nouns in *a* (*nebula*, *larva*), with plurals in *æ* (*nebulae*, *larvæ*); (2) nouns in *ex* or *ix* (*apex*, *appendix*), with plurals in *ices* (*apices*, *appendices*); (3) nouns in *is* (*antithesis*, *basis*), with plurals

in *es*; (4) nouns in *um* (*animalculum*, *stratum*), with plurals in *a*; (5) nouns in *us* (*focus*, *radius*), with plurals in *i* (*foci*, *radii*). Almost the only common words that do not belong to these classes are *genus* (*genera*), and *phenomenon* (*phenomena*). It should be noticed that in classes (2) and (3) *es* is pronounced as *ees* in *trees*, not as *es* in *horses*. A very few foreign nouns, such as *apparatus*, *series*, *species*, may be used in the plural without change of form, and some (such as *aborigines*) are found only in the plural.

Some foreign words have both retained their foreign plurals and acquired English plurals. In such cases the foreign plurals are sometimes reserved for use in technical, learned, or devout language. In mathematics and physics, for instance, we speak of *foci*, *indices*, *vertices*, and *vortices*, and in solemn phrases we sometimes use the Hebrew plurals, *cherubim* and *seraphim*, of *seraph* and *cherub*.¹ *Genius*, meaning "a spirit," makes the plural *genii*, like the Latin noun *genius*; in the sense of "talent" it makes its plural in the usual English fashion.

Our common title of address, *Mr.* (pronounced "mister"), has as a plural *Messrs.*, an abbreviation for the French plural, *Messieurs*. *Madam*, from the French *madame* ("my lady"), and *Mrs.* have no plural in English, though the French abbreviation

¹ In King James's version of the Bible (see *Exodus* xxv. 19), and even now in vulgar English, we have the double plurals *cherubims* and *seraphims*, which originated in mistaking the foreign plurals for singulars.

for the plural of *madame*, i.e., *Mmes.*, is sometimes used. *Miss* makes its plural regularly.

45. Nouns having the Same Form in Both Numbers. —

Some nouns expressive of number or measure, such as *brace*, *dozen*, *head*, *hundredweight*, *pair*, *yoke*, are frequently used in a plural sense, in certain stereotyped phrases, without change of form, as in "several *hundredweight* of iron," "three *yoke* of oxen," "so many *head* of cattle or *sail* of the fleet," "how many *dozen* did he take?" When these nouns are not used in such set phrases, expressing number or measure, they form their plurals regularly, as in "all *sails* were set." Certain names of animals, such as *cod*, *deer*, *grouse*, *salmon*, *trout*, are the same in both singular and plural.¹ *Fish* has as plurals both *fish* and *fishes*: we say "there are many fish in the lake," but, when we refer to individuals of the class *fish*, "the story of the swan and the three *fishes*," "the miracle of the loaves and the *fishes*." *Swine* is usually considered as both singular and plural, but it is now rarely or never used in the singular in literary English. *Heathen*, originally an adjective, is the same in both the singular and the plural; *cannon* is usually treated in the same way, though the plural *cannons* is sometimes found.

46. Nouns Singular in Form, but treated as Plural.

— In spite of the final *s*, *alms*, *caves*, and *riches* (from

¹ The reason for this exceptional usage is that certain such nouns as *deer* and *sheep* were, in Old English, the same in both the singular and the plural.

the French *richesse*) are really singular nouns. Their likeness to plural nouns, however, was so strong that they are regularly treated as plural. Another singular noun ending in *s*, *summons*, has become recognized as a singular, and forms a regular plural, *summonses*.

47. Nouns Plural in Form, but treated as Singular.

— Several nouns, plural in form, such as *amends*, *news*, *tidings*, *economics*, *mathematics*, *optics*, *physics*, *statics*, etc., are regularly treated as singular nouns. *Pains*, in the sense of *care*, as in “the great *pains* that I took with it prevents my disposing of it so readily,” is usually treated as a singular noun. *Means* and *odds* may be regarded as either singular or plural, and *wages* is sometimes, especially in old-fashioned English, treated as a singular (as in “the *wages* of sin is death”). *Politics* and *athletics* differ from the other nouns of the same ending mentioned above in that they are regularly treated as plurals. *The United States*, at first used as a plural noun-phrase, is now generally treated as singular.

48. Nouns rarely used in the Plural. — Some names of diseases, such as *consumption*, *rheumatism*, *diphtheria*; most names of metals or materials, such as *gold*, *bread*; and abstract nouns in general, such as *faith*, *love*, — are rarely or never used in the plural, unless with a changed meaning. We can scarcely say *consumptions* or *golds*, unless, perhaps, to mean different kinds of consumption or of gold. For the plural of abstract nouns, see § 33.

49. Nouns used only in the Plural. — Nouns like *scissors, tongs, trousers, dregs, scales, victuals, cattle*, representing composite objects or groups, are found only in the plural number.

50. Nouns that have Two Meanings in the Plural. — Some nouns have two plurals differing in meaning. Such are *brother, brothers* (by birth), *brethren* (by association); *cloth, cloths* (pieces or kinds of cloth), *clothes*; *die, dies* (for printing), *dice* (for playing). *Pea* has a regular plural *peas*, but there is a somewhat old-fashioned collective singular *pease*, used especially for the dried seeds, as in “a handful of *pease*” or “*pease*-porridge.” It is interesting to notice that *pease* was the original word, and did not change its form in the plural. As it had a plural sound, however, it was used as a plural, and the word *pea* was manufactured to do duty as a singular.¹ *Penny* has also a regular plural *pennies*, used strictly to express number, as in “six *pennies*,” and a plural “pence,” indicating value, as in *sixpence*. *Shot*, a noise, has a regular plural; *shot*, a leaden ball, is the same in both singular and plural.

51. Plural of Compound Nouns. — Compound nouns make their plurals in several ways. (1) Such words as *spoonful, blackbird*, in which the parts of the compound are so blended that the fact of composition has almost or quite disappeared, make regular plurals, *spoonfuls, blackbirds*. (2) Words in which a noun is

¹ Just as, in vulgar English, the singular “Chinee” has been manufactured from “Chinese,” which was ignorantly taken as a plural form.

compounded with an adverb or a prepositional phrase add the plural sign to the original noun, as *lookers-on*, *men-of-war*, *sons-in-law*. (3) If there is no noun in the compound word, the inflection is put at the end, as in *forget-me-nots*, *three-per-cents*, *go-betweens*. (4) In the rare compound nouns (all military or judicial titles of French origin), in which a noun is followed by an adjective, as *knight-errant*, *major-general*, it was formerly the custom to add the plural sign to the noun, as *knights-errant*, *majors-general*, *courts-martial*. It is now more usual, however, to treat these nouns without regard to the relative value of their component parts, and to add the plural sign at the end, as *knight-errants*, *major-generals*, *court-martials*. (5) In several compounds in which the component parts are both nouns and not easily merged together, such as *knight-templar*, *man-servant*, *woman-servant*, the plural sign is added to each word, as *knights-templars*, *men-servants*, *women-servants*. (6) It should be added that, though *journeyman* and similar nouns have the plurals *journeymen* and the like, such nouns as *German*, *Norman*, *Mussulman*, *Ottoman*, *talisman*, are not nouns compounded with the English word *man*, and so form the plurals *Germans*, *Normans*, *talismans*, etc. (7) Proper names preceded by a title of address, as *Mr. Smith*, *Mrs. Smith*, *Miss Smith*, *Colonel Smith*, are treated in two different ways. As the tendency of the language is to form plurals by adding *s* to the word or phrase, we naturally say *the Mr. Smiths*, *the*

Mrs. Smiths, the Miss Smiths, the Colonel Smiths. We sometimes, however, say *the Messrs. Smith, the Colonels Smith*, and we almost invariably write *the Misses Smith*.

52. Plurals of Letters and Signs. — The plural of letters, signs, and figures is usually formed by the addition of *'s*, *e.g.*, "*p's* and *q's*," "*+ 's* and *- 's*," "*8's* and *9's*." Sometimes, however, the apostrophe is omitted. The plural of names of words is usually formed by the addition of *s* merely, *e.g.*, "*ands* and *buts*," though the apostrophe is sometimes inserted. See § 59.

EXERCISE

1. What is the plural of each of the following words? State briefly and clearly the principle involved in each case.

(1) Talisman, Mussulman; (2) bellows, tweezers; (3) mathematics, news; (4) pair, dozen, trout; (5) stratum, crisis; (6) ox, child, cow; (7) dog, box; (8) mother-in-law, man-of-war; (9) silver, dyspepsia; (10) alms, riches; (11) cherub, bandit; (12) foot, tooth; (13) valley, beauty.

2. Of the following nouns, which are in the plural? Which have no plural? Give the plural forms of the remainder, and construct sentences illustrating their use.

Smith, gas, wreath, thief, dwarf, oath, cloth, cross, cow,¹ tooth, pea, brother,¹ salmon, cannon, datum, cherub, species, bandit, apparatus, series, genius, die, eaves, gold, corn, pride, iron, people, spectacle, pound, wages, non-resident, knight-templar, chief-justice, mathematics, politics, athletics, United States, Cæsar, pains, molasses, ashes, militia, custom,² domino.²

3. What words ending in *f* form their plurals in *ves*? Make a statement that will cover the plural of words ending in *y*.

4. What is the plural of hanger-on, chief of police, secretary of the interior, break-down, forget-me-not.

¹ Notice that this word has two plurals. When is each used appropriately? ² The plural of this word is used in two different senses.

CHAPTER VIII

NOUNS : CASE

53. THE FOUR CASES.—**54.** THE INFLECTION OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE.—**55.** THE NOMINATIVE CASE.—**56.** THE POSSESSIVE CASE.—**57.** THE DATIVE CASE ; THE INDIRECT OBJECT.—**58.** THE OBJECTIVE CASE.—**59.** SUMMARY.—**60.** HOW TO PARSE A NOUN.—**61.** OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH AS NOUNS.—**62.** NOUN-PHRASES AND NOUN-CLAUSES.

53. The Four Cases.—We have seen that nouns are sometimes inflected to express differences in gender, and usually inflected to express differences in number. There is still a third kind of noun inflection in English,—that by which we express differences in case. In Old English nouns and pronouns were said to be in any one of four cases, the nominative, the possessive, the dative, or the objective, according as they showed by their form that they played one part or another in the sentence. These four parts which nouns could play were (1) that of the subject of a verb, (2) that of indicating ownership, (3) that of the indirect object of a verb (a function which we shall soon describe), and (4) that of the object of a verb. In Old English, as in most European languages, these four principal but different relations which a noun or pronoun might bear to other words were sometimes expressed by four different forms of the noun or pronoun, and, as a

noun or a pronoun may be either in the singular or the plural number, the theory of the language may be said to have allowed it to appear in eight different forms. Even in Old English nouns never appeared in so great a diversity of forms, and in Modern English, which has lost many of the older inflections, no noun appears in more than four forms. The theory or logical principle of the language remains unchanged, however, and we still speak of a noun as having four cases in each number. A noun is said to be in the nominative case when it is the subject of a verb, in the dative case when it is the indirect object of a verb, in the objective case when it is the direct object of a verb, and in the possessive case when it denotes possession, ownership, or a similar relation. In such a sentence as "the employer paid the child his parent's salary," all four cases are represented in the singular number. *Employer* is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *paid*; *child* is in the dative case because it is the indirect object of the verb; *salary* is in the objective case because it is the direct object of the verb; and *parent's* is in the possessive case because it expresses ownership. In the sentence, "the employers paid the children their parents' salaries," the same nouns are in precisely the same cases but in the plural number.

54. The Inflection of the Possessive Case. — In certain pronouns, as we shall see in the next chapter,

the nominative case — *I* or *we*, for example — is different in form from the objective case (*me* or *us*). In all nouns, however, the only case that is denoted by a separate form is the possessive. The possessive singular is formed by adding *s* preceded by an apostrophe to the nominative singular;¹ thus, *boy*, *boy's*. The apostrophe denotes that a letter is here omitted in spelling, for the Old English possessive added *es* to the nominative singular. When the singular ends already in *s* or a hissing sound, we do not usually change the form of the possessive (*princess*, *princess's*; *topaz*, *topaz's*), but we pronounce the termination 's as if it were *es*. Sometimes, however, when the singular ends in a hissing sound, we omit the *s*, especially if the next word also begins with a hissing sound, adding as the sign of the possessive only the apostrophe, as in "for *Jesus'* sake," "for *conscience'* sake," "for old *acquaintance'* sake." It would be rare to find in the three phrases just mentioned any other form of the possessive than that given, but it is not uncommon to see "*Dickens'* novels," "*Kcats'* poems," "*Socrates'* life," as well as "*Dickens's* novels," "*Kcats's* poems," etc. In colloquial English the latter forms are almost always followed in pronunciation.

A compound noun forms the possessive singular by adding 's at the end, as *man-servant's*, *man-of-war's*, *major-general's*. Names of firms or associa-

¹ This *s* is pronounced as *z*, except in the circumstances mentioned in the note to § 41.

tions and groups of nouns follow the same principle, e.g., "*Park and Tilford's* coffee," "*Washington and Lee University's* officers," "*the Society for the Advancement of Christian Knowledge's* publications," "the *governor of Kentucky's* policy." But it would be less awkward, in many such cases, to represent the same relation by *of*, e.g., "the officers of Washington and Lee University," "the publications of the Society for the Advancement of Christian Knowledge," "the policy of the governor of Kentucky." In the same way, it is better to say "the bridle of Lucy, the gray mare," than "Lucy the gray mare's bridle," though the latter form is correct, in accordance with our custom of placing the sign of the possessive, if possible, at the end of a noun or of a group of words that are taken together as a noun.

The possessive plural is formed by adding *'s* to the regular plural form if that does not end in *s*, as *men*, *men's*; *geese*, *geese's*; if the plural ends in *s*, the possessive adds only the apostrophe, and does not differ in pronunciation from the regular plural form, as *dogs*, *dogs'*.

EXERCISE

Turn into possessives the nouns used with *of* in the following phrases :

A journey of an hour and three-quarters, the salary of the President of the United States, a portrait of Mr. Howells, an adventure of the three princes, the voyage of the three princesses, the narrative of the princess.

55. The Nominative Case. — (1) A noun that is the subject of a verb is said to be in the nominative case. The same term is also used for nouns employed in somewhat different ways. (2) In such a sentence as "O Cromwell, Cromwell! Had I but served my God with half the zeal I served my king!" we say that Cromwell is a nominative of address, for, though it is not the subject of a verb, its use is certainly more like that of a subject than that of an object, an indirect object, or a possessive. The nominative of address is sometimes known as the vocative case (literally, case used in calling or speaking), and was in Latin and Greek represented by a separate inflectional form. (3) In such sentences as "Henry became king in 1509," "Henry was king from 1509 to 1547," the verbs *became* and *was* are of a peculiar kind, known as copulas (link-words) or verbs of incomplete predication. They do not take objects, and they serve merely to join a preceding noun and a following noun by expressing identity or some very similar relation. See § 90. A noun following *is* or *becomes*, therefore, is identical in case with the preceding noun, and differs from it only in that it forms an essential part of the predicate. *King* in both the sentences given above is called a predicate nominative. (4) In such a sentence as "*Washington*, the first president of the United States, was born on the twenty-second of February," *Washington*, as the subject of the verb *was born*, is said to be in the nominative case. *President* is the

chief noun of an explanatory or equivalent phrase. It is parallel, as it were, in its use and meaning, to *Washington*, and is called a nominative in apposition (that is, a nominative by virtue of its place beside another nominative). In the sentence, "Captain Kidd, the famous pirate, buccaneer, and cutthroat, was finally captured and hanged," *pirate*, *buccaneer*, and *cutthroat* are nouns in the nominative case, in apposition with *Kidd*. (5) In such constructions as "The work being completed, we went away," or, "Jack following close beside me, I ran swiftly forward," *work* and *Jack* are called absolute nominatives, simply because they do not play the part of any other case. They are not objects, they do not indicate possession, and so, as we must account for them in some way, we assign them to the nominative case in the same way that we do nouns used in address. See above (2). As a matter of fact, *work* and *Jack* in these constructions would in Old English have been datives, but all signs of the use of the dative of nouns in such a way have long ago disappeared, and we are justified in classifying such uses in the manner most in keeping with the general principles of the modern language. See, however, § 127, note 1.

EXERCISE

Find the nouns in the nominative in the exercises following §§ 14, 15, 18, 19, 25, and 33. Tell the use of each.

56. The Possessive Case. — The possessive case is so called because its most common office is to indicate

the owner or possessor, as in "*John's* hat." It may also be used in a variety of ways to express the person or thing to be regarded as directly concerned with the following noun, as in "*Scott's* poems," "*Cæsar's* death," "the *summer's* heat." Sometimes it is used with an objective force, as in "the *Czar's* assassination," where the meaning is obviously that the Czar was assassinated, not that he assassinated some one (compare "*Mary Queen of Scots'* murders," where the meaning is the reverse). Sometimes the possessive is used without a noun to modify it, as in "he went to the *baker's*," "he caught sight of *St. Mary's*," where *shop* and *church* are understood. These different uses, so familiar to us in speech and writing, it is not necessary to analyze closely here. The student's attention should, however, be called to two things: (1) that the possessive case is almost always the exact equivalent of the "same noun preceded by *of*, e.g., "*John's* hat" is equivalent to "the hat *of John*"; (2) that we sometimes use both forms of expression together, as a sort of double possessive. We may say, for example, "a cousin *of John's*," "a house *of Mr. Smith's*," "these sermons *of Dr. Brooks's*." It is plain that we could not, in accordance with the idiom of our language, say "a *John's* cousin," "these *Dr. Brooks's* sermons," and historical grammar makes it evident that the possessive, in such instances, is not to be regarded as modifying a noun omitted or understood, but rather as a

peculiar usage, due to causes not easily to be explained here.¹

EXERCISE

State the case of the italicized nouns, mentioning any peculiarities in their use :

1. Have Harry go straight to the *doctor's*, stopping at the *apothecary's* on the way back. 2. My dear *sir*, you can scarcely expect me, after a *day and a half's* ride, to undertake another expedition at a *moment's* notice. 3. You *rascal*, I will tell your *father*. 4. *Sword* in hand, the *men* steadily advance. 5. Any *friend* of *John's* is welcome here. 6. *Jefferson*, *Washington's* secretary of state, was a popular *idol*. 7. His *wife* was called² *Lady Washington*. 8. I have just read a novel of *Scott's*³ and one of *Mr. Howells's*.

57. The Dative Case; the Indirect Object. — In such a sentence as "I gave John the book," it is evident that *I* is the subject, *gave* the verb or predicate, and *book* the object of the verb. But what is *John*? It is ~~not~~ strictly the object of the verb, and yet it is certainly not the subject. In Old or Middle English a different form of the noun would have been used, distinguishing the *John* in "I gave John a book" from the *John* in "I struck John." In Modern English we use *John* in both instances, but we see that the word plays in each instance a different part. When it is used in the former sense ("I gave *John* the book"), we call it the indirect object. The indirect object is, as a rule, easily recognized, for whenever a noun or pronoun is used in

¹ See Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax* (1892), p. 113.

² *Was called* has the same force as the verbs mentioned in § 55, 3.

³ The best term for this idiom is the double possessive with *of*.

that way we may almost invariably prefix *to* or *for* to it without altering the sense; that is to say, "I gave John the book" is practically the same as "I gave to John the book," or "I gave the book to John." "I bought him a hat" is practically the same as "I bought a hat for him."

The indirect object of a verb is said to be in the dative case (Latin *dare*, to give), that is, the case representing the person to whom something is given. It should be borne in mind that a noun is said to be in the dative case only when it expresses the relation described without the aid of a preposition. In such a sentence as "I gave a book to John," *John* is not in the dative, but in the objective case, as will be seen in the following section.¹

EXERCISE

Point out the indirect objects in the following sentences:

1. You can do your friends a great favor by acting as they wish.
2. I saved my father considerable trouble in this instance.
3. I was forced to refuse my correspondent his request.
4. He gave the questioner a surly answer.
5. My father left me an ample fortune.
6. I will send my friend his books.
7. Forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors.
8. He brought me the book I wanted.
9. I taught my cousin French.
10. The teacher asked the pupils several questions.
11. Tell your friends what has happened.
12. If you can't come write us a letter.
13. He lent his friends money, and gave his relatives presents; but he owed his tailor a considerable amount.
14. He played me a trick.
15. I allow my son a dollar a week for pocket-money.
16. I envy him his good fortune.

¹ A noun may also be in the dative case by apposition. See sentence 20 in the exercise following § 60.

58. The Objective Case. — The objective case serves a variety of purposes. (1) It indicates the direct object of a verb. (2) In such a sentence as "there he saw Napoleon, the great general," *Napoleon* is in the objective case, the object of the verb *saw*, and *general*, by virtue of the fact that it is a noun explanatory or descriptive of *Napoleon*, is said to be in the objective case, in apposition with *Napoleon*. Compare § 55, 4. (3) In the sentence, "the people made Henry king," the verb *made* is followed by the direct object *king*, and by another noun, which completes the idea of the verb by showing what it was that the people made Henry, much as if the sentence had read, "the people *crowned* (or *kinged*) Henry." The second noun in this construction is usually called an objective complement (*i.e.*, "completing" word). (3) In such phrases as "in the city," "of the city," "through the city," "at the city," we say that *city* is in the objective case, with the preposition *in*, *of*, *through*, or *at*. In Old English prepositions were followed by the dative case as well as by the objective. In Modern English, however, the dative case has retained only the functions described in the last section, and we are accustomed to regard all nouns used with prepositions in phrases like those given above, as in the objective case.¹

¹ It should be noticed that such nouns are not strictly the objects of a preposition, for a preposition merely indicates a relation and does not express action, but in the objective case *with* a preposition.

Two other uses of the objective must be briefly described. (4) A verb may take, not a direct, but a *cognate* object, *i.e.*, one that is "related" to the verb in meaning, *e.g.*, "he *sleeps* the *sleep* of the just," "I *ran* a *race*." Here the italicized words are not real objects of the actions described by the verb, but a sort of expansion of the verbs. (5) Akin to this usage is that by which an objective is employed with the force of an adverb, limiting the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb, *e.g.*, "he came this *morning*," "it is a *foot* long."¹ See § 134.

59. Summary. — Nominatives are of five sorts: (1) Nominative as subject of a verb; (2) predicate nominative; (3) nominative in apposition; (4) nominative of address; (5) absolute nominative. Possessives are of two sorts: (1) possessive as modifying a noun;² (2) possessive in apposition.³ Datives are

¹ It is important that the pupil should understand that the force of the dative and objective, in all their uses, is really adverbial; that is, they always limit the action of the verb. Thus, in "*Monday* after *dinner* I gave *John* his *lesson*," the broad act of giving is narrowed by the statement of the thing given (direct object), the person to whom it was given (dative), the time at which it was given (adverbial objective). It is further limited by being brought into the relation with *dinner* that is indicated by the preposition *after*.

² A possessive has the force of an adjective (see § 15).

³ This construction is rare. When the two nouns stand side by side, the possessive sign is usually added only to the latter. Compare "Isaac brought her to his *mother Sarah's* tent" (*Genesis* xxiv. 67), and, for the contrary usage, "*Othello's* pleasure, our noble and valiant *general*." As a rule, these awkward expressions are avoided by using *of, e.g.*, "the tent of *his mother, Sarah*."

of two sorts: (1) dative as indirect object; (2) dative in apposition. Objectives are of five sorts: (1) objective as direct object; (2) objective complement; (3) objective in apposition; (4) cognate objective; (5) adverbial objective.

60. How to Parse a Noun.—We parse a noun when we state its kind (*i.e.*, whether it is common or proper¹), its gender, its number, and its case, making clear its relation to other words in the sentence. In the sentence, “during his master’s absence the dog broke loose,” we should parse the nouns as follows: *master’s* is a common noun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, modifying *absence*; *absence* is a common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, with the preposition *during*; *dog* is a common noun, common gender, singular number, nominative case, subject of *broke*.

EXERCISE

I. Parse the nouns in the following sentences:

1. Steele had known Addison from childhood. 2. “Triflers,” shouted the colonel, “silence!” 3. The unfortunate soldier was declared a traitor to his country and his flag. 4. The only son of the deceased, Edgar, the Master of Ravenswood, a youth of about twenty years, instantly resented the insult. 5. Hector, the Trojan champion, was slain by Achilles, the noblest Grecian warrior. 6. In the forefront—there being no apparent danger—he descried the cowardly Peter. 7. A man in priestly robes led by the hand the orphan child, a timid boy of ten years.

¹See § 31. It is recommended that pupils be not encouraged regularly to distinguish between abstract and concrete nouns.

8. The crowd gave the soldiers three cheers. 9. By his wilfulness he made his error a sin, his mistake a crime. 10. The commander-in-chief, a short, powerful man, sat calmly on his horse, a tall bay mare. 11. The dog leading the way, the little band reached at last a place of safety. 12. The strangest ride that ever sped was Ireson's out of Marblehead. 13. "Tell Colonel Ashton," said Ravenswood, "I shall be found at Wolf's Crag." 14. My son, I command you; my friend, I entreat you. 15. At St. Peter's the duke was made a king; the king, an emperor. 16. Only the steersman seemed to keep genuine and unornamented the costume of his race, the white linen leggings, the quilted cuirass, the bear's fur cloak. 17. At the gunsmith's the repairs were soon completed. 18. The fugitives were received by the crowd, a confused mass of monks and populace. 19. The dying man left his son a handsome fortune, the fruit of years of toil and self-denial. 20. The child handed the beggar, a mass of rags and dirt, a bunch of spring flowers. 21. A friend of his father's gave the poor boy advice and help. 22. At last he was elected president of the company, the almost irresponsible manager of enormous interests. 23. That tedious task over, the laborers paused to rest. 24. I make Caleb my executor. 25. Be patient, gentlemen. 26. That is a question, madam, which a father has a right to ask. 27. I am an armed man, a desperate man, and I will not die without ample vengeance. 28. The master became a servant, the servant a master. 29. The seal was Orestes', and so was the handwriting. 30. The furniture of the bishop's room did not differ from that of the artisan's. 31. The soldiers gathered together their plunder, — the money, jewels, and treasures which the poor inhabitants had accumulated during generations. 32. The policeman found the child his hat and started him homeward. 33. He foolishly lent the gambler, a ruined and reckless man, almost his whole stock of ready money. 34. A staff-officer of the general's galloped up at this juncture. 35. The boy became a skilled workman, the best blacksmith in the county. 36. He forced his way to the gate, the yelling crowd scattering behind him. 37. The robber had lived a life of crime. 38. Terrace above terrace, the hills stretched upward. 39. All loose her negligent attire, all loose her golden hair, hung Margaret o'er her slaughter'd sire.

40. Hundreds of feet below, the waves dashed wildly. 41. Any way, I will do it. 42. You are the color of chalk!¹ 43. Mary is just my age. 44. I will do my best. 45. I fear that you will get the worst of it.

61. Other Parts of Speech as Nouns. — As was pointed out in § 15, words that are usually adjectives sometimes occur as nouns, *e.g.*, “the *good* and the *great*.” The same is, more rarely, true of adverbs, *e.g.*, “the *ins* and *outs*,” “the *whys* and *wherefores*,” “the *eyes* have it.” Any word or expression may become a noun when quoted, *e.g.*, “he shouted ‘help’!”; “I will hear no more of your ‘ands’ and ‘buts’”; “there’s no such word as ‘fail.’”

62. Noun-Phrases and Noun-Clauses. — A phrase may be used as (1) the subject of a verb, *e.g.*, “*to enter* is death”; as (2) the object of a verb, “I choose *to go*”²; and as (3) the predicate nominative, “his plan was *to proceed*”³ at once.” A clause may be used as (1) the subject of a verb; as (2) the object of a verb; and as (3) in the objective case with a preposition; *e.g.*, “*that the stage arrived* (subject) proves *that he is in safety*”⁴ (object)”; “I went straight to *where he was sitting* (objective case with a preposition).”⁵ Phrases and clauses used in these ways are equivalent to nouns, and may be called noun-phrases and

¹ *Color* may be accounted for as predicate nominative, or as objective, the preposition *of* being omitted. Cf. the next sentence.

² The construction is the same as in “I choose an *apple*.”

³ The construction is the same as in “his plan was a *failure*.”

⁴ The construction is the same as in “his *arrival* proves his *safety*.”

⁵ The construction is the same as in “I went straight to *John*.”

noun-clauses. Phrases and clauses may also be used, as the equivalents of nouns, in other constructions, particularly as complements and as adverbial objectives, but the discussion of these points is reserved for another chapter.¹

EXERCISE

What are the subjects and objects of the italicized verbs in the following sentences? Mention any clauses or phrases in apposition or used with the force of predicate nominatives.

1. That the relation between the imperial country and a colonial dependency was radically false *cannot be repeated* too often.
2. To induce them to contribute to the common defence *was* a difficult task.
3. The fact *remains* that he and his soldiers were there at England's cost to defend her American children against the French and their Indian allies.
4. If only the mother country *could have said* to the child, "I have secured you the dominion of the new world; follow henceforth your destiny."

¹ See §§ 116-119 and 184.

CHAPTER IX

PRONOUNS

63. KINDS OF PRONOUNS. — **64.** PERSONAL PRONOUNS. — **65.** PERSONAL PRONOUNS OF THE SECOND PERSON. — **66.** PERSONAL PRONOUNS OF THE THIRD PERSON. — **67.** THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS. — **68.** THE DATIVE AND OBJECTIVE CASES OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS. — **69.** COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS. — **70.** INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS. — **71.** RELATIVE PRONOUNS. — **72.** INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUNS. — **73.** *As* AND *But* AS RELATIVE PRONOUNS. — **74.** DISTINCTION BETWEEN INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS. — **75.** DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS. — **76.** ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS. — **77.** INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

63. Kinds of Pronouns. — As we have seen (§ 16), pronouns are reference-words which refer to persons or things without naming them. Pronouns may be conveniently classed under six heads: as personal, interrogative, relative, demonstrative, adjective, and indefinite. We shall now discuss in turn each of these classes.

64. Personal Pronouns. — The pronouns (1) *I*, (2) *thou*, (3) *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their various inflectional forms, are called the personal pronouns, because they refer (1) to a person speaking, (2) to a person spoken to, (3) to a person or thing spoken of. Pronouns referring to a person speaking are said to be of the *first* person; those referring to a person spoken to, of the *second* person; those referring to a

person or thing spoken of, of the *third* person. The personal pronouns are inflected as follows :

FIRST PERSON.				SECOND PERSON.	
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we		thou	ye, you
<i>Poss.</i>	my, mine	our, ours		thy, thine	your, yours
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us		thee	you

THIRD PERSON.			
	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
<i>Nom.</i>	he	she	it
<i>Poss.</i>	his	her, hers	its
<i>Obj.</i>	him	her	it
			All Genders.
			they
			their, theirs
			them

65. Personal Pronouns of the Second Person.—Pronouns of the second person present several peculiarities. The singular form has almost entirely gone out of use, surviving now only in prayer to the Deity, in poetry or impassioned prose, and, not uncommonly, in the speech and writing of members of the Society of Friends or Quakers. In prayer the use of the singular pronoun produces an effect of solemnity, which would be in great measure destroyed by the employment of the colloquial *you*. The custom is based upon the usage of King James's version of the Bible, which was made at a time when the singular pronoun had not gone out of use in addressing a single person. In poetry, and in impassioned prose, the singular pronoun produces, as a rule, a certain effect of solemnity, as in prayer. *Ye*, in the plural, has the same effect. At first, when *you* was applied to a single person, it was regarded as a polite form

of expression, to be employed chiefly by inferiors in addressing their superiors. The use of the singular pronoun by Quakers, now largely given up, except in intimate conversation, was based on the conviction that the use of the plural pronoun for such a purpose made an unnatural and un-Christian distinction between persons. It is interesting to notice that Quakers now use *thee* as the nominative case, as in "*thee* walk too fast." The change is the same as that which has taken place in *you*, which was at first an objective (cf. "I have piped unto *you* and *ye* have not danced"), and has now come to be both nominative and objective. In the common speech of to-day a trace of this old use of *ye* remains in the pronunciation of "how do you do" as "how d'i do," that is, "how d'ye do."

You has sometimes an indefinite force, as in "the temple stands on your left as *you* cross the river," where *you* may refer, not to a particular person, but to any person who might be conceived of as present at the spot mentioned.

66. Personal Pronouns of the Third Person.—Here certain peculiarities of form and usage must also be noted. The pronouns of the third person (*he, she, it*) distinguish the gender of the person or thing spoken of. This distinction is not necessary in the pronouns of the first and second persons, which are used almost entirely in conversation, where the sex of the speakers is recognized. In speaking of persons

or things, however, such a distinction is necessary to prevent ambiguity or obscurity. *He* and *she* may be used in referring to personified objects or ideas (see § 39), as well as to persons. They are also frequently used in speaking of animals. On the other hand, *it* is sometimes used in referring to a child, who is thus regarded as a thing. *They* is often used indefinitely, referring to people in general, as in "*they* say so-and-so."

The possessive *its* is of comparatively recent origin. The old form was *his*, from the nominative *hit*. It was used until the sixteenth century and then died out gradually. In King James's version of the Bible and in Shakspeare we still find *his* employed as a possessive neuter pronoun: "And the earth brought forth grass, and herb yielding seed after *his* kind" (*Genesis* i. 12); "how far that little candle throws *his* beams" (*Merchant of Venice*, v. 1).

A curious survival of an old usage is to be seen in our colloquial pronunciation of *them* as 'em ("I threw 'em away"). In literary English of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries it is not uncommon to find 'em for *them*. 'Em, however, is not an abbreviation of *them*, but a survival of the pronunciation of the Old English *hcm*, which was replaced in very early times by *them*, a form of a somewhat different origin.

We must also notice several peculiar uses of the neuter pronoun *it*. *It* may refer to a thing, as in "I took *it* away," or to a whole group of words, as in

"I had heard that he was not truthful, but I did not believe *it*" (*i.e.*, that he was not truthful). *It* is also used in three less obvious ways :

1. *It* may be the *grammatical*, as distinguished from the *logical*, subject of a verb, as in "*It* is clear that he is not a truthful man." Here the sense is : "That he is not a truthful man is clear." Logically, "that he is not a truthful man" is the subject of the verb. Grammatically, *it*, referring to the following group of words, is the subject of the verb.

2. *It* is used as the subject of impersonal verbs, as in "*it* rains," "*it* snows," where *it* does not refer to any definite thing. See § 91.

3. *It* is sometimes used as a sort of indefinite object, as in the colloquial, "I gave *it* to him" (*i.e.*, I treated him roughly), "I footed *it* across the state," "I won't, and that's an end of *it*."

EXERCISE

Comment on any peculiarities in the use of the pronouns in the following sentences :

1. A small schooner lay at anchor, with her broadside toward the shore. 2. Mid the dark rocks that watch his bed glitters the mighty river. 3. The child crept to its mother. 4. The dog knew his master's step. 5. Once, in a sea fight, 'gainst the count his galleys I did some service.¹ 6. I will send thee a

¹ *Twelfth Night*, Act iii, sc. 3. Compare "for Jesus Christ *his* sake," in the ritual of the Church of England, and the familiar inscription "John Smith *his* book." For some centuries it was supposed that the '*s*' of the possessive was an abbreviation of *his*, and *his* was often written instead of the sign of the possessive. The pupil will be interested in reading No. 135 of the *Spectator* and noticing Addison's comments on what he supposed to be the vulgar use of '*s* for *his*."

copy of my little book in a few days ; there are some things in it that I think thee will like. I wish thee would write out for the *Atlantic* some of the good things thee know of the Shoals.¹ 7. Ye have feared the sword ; and I will bring the sword upon you.² 8. And he [Bezaleel] made the candlestick of pure gold : of beaten work made he the candlestick ; his shaft, and his branch, his bowls, his knops, and his flowers, were of the same.³ 9. He hath lost his fellows and strays about to find 'em.⁴ 10. It⁵ was he who suggested it. 11. It is needless to recount the details of the quarrel. 12. We made the ascent while it was raining hardest.

67. The Possessive Case of the Personal Pronouns.—

The possessive case of a personal pronoun (e.g., "*his* hat, "*her* book") is frequently treated as an adjective. Its force is certainly that of an adjective, but it does not differ in that respect from the possessive case of a noun, and we find it on the whole more convenient, in this volume, not to classify the possessive cases of the personal pronouns as adjectives.

Each of the personal pronouns, except *he* and *it*, has two possessives. See § 64. The forms *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used only when preceding the noun they qualify, as in "*my* life," "*your* faith." The forms *mine*, *thine*, *hers*,⁶ *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are commonly used after the noun, as in "the dog is *mine*," "that dog of *mine*," "sister *mine*." In older English *mine* and *thine* were often used before a vowel sound, instead of *my* and *thy*, and the usage

¹ From a letter of J. G. Whittier's to Celia Thaxter.

² *Ezekiel* xi. 8.

³ *Exodus* xxxvii. 17.

⁴ *Tempest*, Act i, sc. 2.

⁵ Notice that *it* is the grammatical subject; *who*, etc., is the logical subject.

⁶ In vulgar English we find *hern*, *hish*, *theirn*, etc., forms analogous to *mine*.

is still not uncommon in poetry : *e.g.*, “drink to me only with *thine* eyes.” Double possessives occur frequently with pronouns, as well as with nouns (see § 56), *e.g.*, “a horse *of his*,” “a neighbor *of mine*,” “a friend *of theirs*.”

68. The Dative and Objective Cases of the Personal Pronouns.—As in nouns, so in pronouns, the same forms do duty for both the dative and the objective.¹ The cases must be recognized by their uses, which are precisely the same as with nouns. See §§ 55–59. It is interesting to notice that in the verbs *methinks* and *me seems* (literally, [it to] me seems), *me* is in the dative case. *Methinks* is precisely equivalent in meaning to *me seems*, for *thinks* is here from an Old English verb meaning “to seem.”

69. Compound Personal Pronouns.—To the personal pronouns *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them* the words *self* (singular) and *selves* (plural) may be added, forming the compound personal pronouns *myself*, *thyselves*, *ourselves*, etc. These are used in two ways :

I. With a noun or a personal pronoun, for emphasis, as in “the king *himself* commanded it,” “I *myself* saw it,” where *himself* and *myself* are in the nominative case, in apposition with *king* and *I*. Sometimes *myself* and *ourselves* (and, rarely, other compound personal pronouns) are used without an accompanying

¹ These forms are, however, derived from the old dative forms of the pronouns, not from the objective.

noun or personal pronoun, as in "the general, and *myself* were among the first arrivals," "our ancestors and *ourselves* have both fought for freedom." In some such instances the compound personal pronouns are used for emphasis; in others they are nearly or quite equivalent to personal pronouns.

2. Without an accompanying noun or pronoun, with a reflexive sense, that is, representing a person or thing as acted upon by himself or itself, as in "he only succeeded in wounding *himself*," "I have no confidence in *myself*." Sometimes, especially in poetry, the simple personal pronouns are used for the same purpose, as in "now I lay *me* down to sleep," "he looked about *him*."

EXERCISE

[In parsing a personal pronoun we state (1) of what person it is, (2) to what word or group of words it refers, (3) what, is its gender (if of the third person), (4) its number, and (5) its case, making clear its relation to other words in the same sentence. Thus, in "*you* shall not lord *it* over *me*," *you* is a personal pronoun of the second person, referring to a person or persons not named, plural number, nominative case, subject of the verb *shall lord*. *It* is a personal pronoun of the third person, used indefinitely, without direct reference, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, object of the verb *shall lord*. In parsing a compound personal pronoun, we follow the same method, stating in addition whether its use is emphatic or reflexive.]

I. Parse (1) the personal pronouns, (2) the nouns in the following sentences :

1. "Thou art late, son," said the abbot. 2. Tell me all about it. 3. You insolent provincial slave, you will carry those liberties of yours too far. 4. Whether you will comply with his

reasonable little request depends of course on yourself. 5. I owe him a large sum. 6. If he wants us, he must come himself and lead us. 7. Give them their due. 8. Send me it at once. 9. If the gods demand a sacrifice, here am I. 10. It is mine.^u 11. You shall do it yourself. 12. I will force myself to do it. 13. Mine eyes shall see the glory of the coming of the Lord. 14. Thy rod and thy staff they comfort me. 15. It hailed the ships, and cried, "Sail on, ye mariners, the night is gone." 16. Methought I stood before the raging sea. 17. She early left her sleepless bed, the fairest maid of Teviotdale. 18. What may it be, the heavy sound, that moans old Branksome's turrets round? 19. The flower and chivalry of Spain had sat in that council room, grandes who had plumed and ruffled it with the bloods of their day, and now it was deserted, stared at only from time to time by your fool of a tourist. 20. Who am I? What is this Me, this poor miserable Me?¹ 21. Run, run, Orlando; carve on every tree, the fair, the chaste and unexpressive she.² 22. They sat them down beside the stream. 23. Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice. 24. He had of me a chain; at five o'clock I shall receive the money for the same.³ 25. I remain, my dear sir, yours respectfully, John Smith. 26. If you are caught, you must be it.

II. Parse the personal pronouns in the exercises following §§ 14, 15, 18, 19, 25, and 33.

70. Interrogative Pronouns.—The pronouns *who*, *what*, and *which* are used in interrogations or questions, and are therefore called interrogative pronouns. *Who* has a possessive *whose* and a dative and objective *whom*. *What* and *which* are not inflected. *Who*

¹ Carlyle. Note that *me* is here a noun.

² *As You Like It*, Act iii, sc. 2.

³ *Comedy of Errors*, Act iv, sc. 1. Note that *the same* is equivalent to *it*. This usage is not uncommon in older English, and is preserved in present English in commercial phraseology, e.g., "Yours received and contents of same noted."

and *which* may be used in the singular or the plural; *what*, only in the singular. *Who* refers only to persons; *what* only to things; *which* refers to either persons or things, but differs from *who* and *what* in that it implies that the answer will express a choice or selection among certain persons or things. "*Who* was the murderer, and *what* was the instrument he used?" implies that we are in complete ignorance as to both facts. "*Which* was the murderer and *which* weapon did he use?" implies that two or more particular persons are suspected of the murder, and that the murderer is supposed to have used one of two or more particular instruments in committing his crime. The question is *which* of these individuals was the criminal and *which* of these instruments was his instrument.

As has been stated above, *whom* is the objective case of *who*, and in literary English we write, "*whom* did you see?" In colloquial English, however, "*who* did you see?" has long been a common usage, and can scarcely be regarded as incorrect.

Whether, now obsolete, was an interrogative pronoun, meaning "which of the two." "*Whether* is greater, the gold, or the temple that sanctifieth the gold?" — *Matthew* xxiii. 17.

Interrogative pronouns may be used in direct or in indirect questions. A direct question is in the words of the questioner, *e.g.*, "*what* shall I do?" An indirect question is introduced by such statements as "I asked," *e.g.*, "I asked what I should do," "he

enquires what he shall do." Sometimes the idea of asking is implied rather than expressed, as in "he deliberated what he should do," "he took his friends' advice as to what he should do." See also § 74.

The words *who*, *what*, and *which* must not be supposed to be invariably interrogative pronouns. They may also be relative pronouns, as we shall see in the next section.

EXERCISE

Parse the interrogative pronouns in the following sentences, *i.e.*, state the number and case of each :

1. Who is he? 2. What is he? 3. Whom do you mean?
4. Whose dog art thou? 5. What is the matter? 6. What do you mean?
7. Which is the road? 8. Which shall I take?
9. Whether of them twain did the will of his father?¹ 10. Who² should I see there but my own brother?
11. It is so dark that I can't tell who is who?³ 12. Have you decided what you will do?⁴
13. I insist upon knowing who he is. 14. I am anxious to know to whom you refer. 15. I know what the circumstances are. 16. I have not decided which I shall ride.

71. Relative Pronouns. — *Who*, *what*, *which*, and *that*⁵ frequently fulfil two duties: they are both refer-

¹ *Matthew* xxi. 31.

² Colloquial but not vulgar English. The pupil may be interested to notice in a concordance to Shakspeare the number of instances in which *who* is used as an objective. For the reason see § 154, 2, a. Compare also "*whom* do men say that I am?" (*Matthew* xvi. 13), where *whom* should be *who*, according to strict modern usage.

³ Notice that the clause is the object of *tell*.

⁴ *What you will do* is the object of *decided*, or, better, the adverbial objective (compare the Latin accusative of specification). *What* is the object of *do*.

⁵ *That* is the oldest English relative. The others were first used only as interrogatives. The pupil will be interested in reading Steele's

ence-words and connectives. In such instances they are called relative pronouns. The use of relative pronouns may be illustrated by the following sentences: (1) "he is the man *who* shot the bear"; (2) "he stole the money *which* the farmer had hidden"; (3) "this is the rat *that* ate the malt." In (1) *who* refers to *man*, and connects the statements "he is the man" and "[he] shot the bear"; in (2) *which* refers to *money*, and connects "he stole the money" and "the farmer had hidden [the money]"; in (3) *that* refers to *rat*, and connects "this is the rat" and "[he] ate the malt." The word, or group of words, to which a relative pronoun refers is called its antecedent (literally, the thing "going before"), because it usually precedes the pronoun.

The four relative pronouns are used in slightly different ways.

1. *Who*, with its possessive *whose*, and its dative and objective *whom*, is both singular and plural, and refers almost invariably to living beings, usually persons, sometimes animals. By a sort of personification, however, *whose* (but not *who* or *whom*) sometimes refers to things, as in "the city *whose* towers he saw in the distance."

2. *What* always refers to things, never to persons. (Compare the interrogative *what*, § 70.) It is peculiar in that its antecedent is not usually expressed, "humble petition of *who* and *which*" in the *Spectator* for May 30, 1711 (quoted in Lounsbury, *History of the English Language*, p. 297). Steele was mistaken in thinking *that* the upstart and the others the original relatives.

e.g., “*what* I saw, I shall not tell you.” *What* is here equivalent to *that which*, and the construction is the same as in “I will not tell you *that which* I saw.” When expressed, the antecedent follows the relative, *e.g.*, “*what* I do not tell you, *that* you must learn elsewhere.”

3. *Which*, with some rare exceptions, refers only to things. It is not inflected.

4. *That* refers to either persons or things and is not inflected. It differs from *who* and *which* in that it never directly follows a preposition. We may say, for example, “the man *of whom* I told you,” or “the book *with* which I saw you,” but we must say “the man *that* I told you *of*,” “the book *that* I saw you *with*.” *That* is almost always a restrictive relative, that is, it introduces a group of words which limit the meaning of its antecedent, much as an adjective would. “The friends *that* I loved are dead,” for example, is equivalent to “my loved friends [*i.e.*, as distinguished from other friends] are dead.” On the other hand, we say “my father, *whom* (not *that*) I loved, is dead,” because “my father” designates an individual and cannot be further restricted in meaning. *Who* and *which*, however, are also often used with a restrictive force. See sentences 14, 15, 16, and 17 in the following exercise:¹

¹ Some grammarians and rhetoricians insist that *who* cannot properly be used in a restrictive sense, as in “this course is open to students *who* can show evidence of proper preparation.” The evidence gathered from standard writers does not support this view.

EXERCISE

[In parsing a relative pronoun we state (1) what its antecedent is, (2) its number, (3) its case. Care should be taken in analyzing the meaning of sentences containing relative pronouns. Thus, in the sentence "what I do not understand, I do not believe," it takes, at first, a moment's thought to see that the meaning is, "I [subject] do not believe [verb] what-I-do-not-understand [object]." *What* is part of the group of words which is the object of the verb. In that group of words *I* is the subject, *do* [not] *understand* is the verb, and *what* is the object. *What* is therefore in the objective case. Another way of parsing the sentence is to consider *what* equivalent to *that which*. The sense is then, "I do not believe *that which* I do not understand." Here *that* is the object of *believe* and the antecedent of *which*, and *which* is the object of *do* [not] *understand*. *What*, therefore, as it combines the offices of *that* and *which* may be parsed as both the object of *do* [not] *believe* and of *do* [not] *understand*. The first method of parsing the word is, however, the simpler and the more natural.]

Parse the relative pronouns.

1. The genius of John Smith, who compelled gentlemen to wield the axe, saved the colony from dissolution.
2. He was the first of a line of adventurers, who were, like himself, gold-seekers.
3. Against the capitol I met a lion, who glared upon me.¹
4. They were surrounded by a community highly commercial, whose manners their austere simplicity deemed corrupting, which did not strictly keep the Sabbath, and into whose worldliness their children were in danger of being drawn.
5. Massachusetts led the world in the institution of common schools, to which all citizens were required to contribute, and which all citizens were required to use.
6. In their conduct towards the savages with whom they came in contact, the Puritans were blameworthy.
7. This was King Philip, who, the colonists believed, had plotted to drive them out of the land.
8. Persons were put to death on charges that were fantastic.
9. He wrote on no subject that he did not enrich.
10. You

¹ *Julius Cæsar*, Act i, sc. 3.

are the very man that I have been looking for.¹ 11. You are the very man for whom I have been looking. 12. Our father which art in heaven.² 13. Blessings on the man that first invented sleep. 14. The men who had volunteered stepped promptly forward. 15. The friends with whom he took refuge betrayed him. 16. The mail which should have come yesterday has only just arrived. 17. Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you. 18. The tents of wickedness, wherein shall dwell his race who slew his brother. 19. What was worse, he told a lie.

72. Indefinite Relative Pronouns. — *Whoever, whoso, whosoever, whatever, whatso, whatsoever*, are called indefinite relative pronouns, because they refer, not to definite persons or things, but to any possible existing persons or things, as will be seen by the following examples: “*Whoever* enters, does so at his peril.” “*Whosoever* will, let him take the water of life freely.” “You may have *whatever* you wish.” “*Whatsoever* he doeth shall prosper.” Of these pronouns, however, only *whoever* and *whatever* are in common use.

Whoever, whoso, and whosoever are inflected like *who*. *Who* and *what* (and perhaps, rarely, *which*) may also be used with the force of indefinite relatives, as in “choose whom you will,” “do what you will,” where *whom* and *what* are equivalent to *whomever* and *whatever*.

¹ That is the object of *have-been-looking-for*. There is a common but mistaken idea that a preposition should not be used at the end of a sentence. The construction is a perfectly natural one, and should not be discouraged unless in cases where it is distinctly displeasing to the ear.

² In older English *which* also referred to persons.

73. *As* and *But* as Relative Pronouns. — In sentences like “I trust such men as trust me,” *as* is a relative pronoun, with *men* as its antecedent, for the sentence is plainly equivalent to “I trust those men *who* trust me.” *As* is also a relative in such expressions, in vulgar English, as “if I do say it as shouldn’t,” *i.e.*, “if I say it *who* should not.” In sentences like “there is no sailor *but* is superstitious,” *but* may be called a relative pronoun, with a negative force, and with *sailor* as its antecedent, for the sentence is plainly equivalent to “there is not a sailor *who* is *not* superstitious.”

74. Distinction between Interrogative Pronouns in Indirect Questions and Relative Pronouns. — The pupil will often find it difficult to distinguish the relatives *who*, *what*, and *which* from the same words used as interrogative pronouns. For example, in “I failed to remember *who* he was and *what* he meant,” *who* and *what* are not relatives but interrogatives, for, though there is no verb of asking, the questions “who was he?” “what did he mean?” are clearly implied. In view, however, of the close historical connection between the two classes of words, the distinction cannot be regarded as of importance.

EXERCISE

Parse the relative and interrogative pronouns in the following sentences :

1. Who that once bends from his line of march in a fog can tell how to find it again?
2. The mountain was a high cone

that rose a little in advance of that range which stretches for miles along the lake. 3. What course do you propose to follow? 4. The thick darkness which usually precedes the approach of day began to disperse, and objects were seen in the colors with which they had been gifted by nature. 5. They were absorbed in deciding which route they should take. 6. The citadel before whose gates they found themselves was impregnable. 7. I am on ground that I have often travelled, and over a large part of which I have fought. 8. Whose plan it was, to whom was assigned the defence, and who should have led the attack, it is impossible now to ascertain. 9. Such men as came were welcomed. 10. There are few scholars but would dread such an ordeal. 11. Experience taught him to amend what was faulty in his design. 12. What I would not [do], that I do. 13. He spent generously what he acquired laboriously. 14. Whoever made such a statement said what is not true. 15. He firmly believed that whatever he had done was for the best. 16. Whichever course he adopted he felt that he must first decide what results he wished to attain. 17. Who are you that¹ you should command me? 18. I asked who he was and what he wanted. 19. What is the book² you gave me?

75. Demonstrative Pronouns. — The pronouns *this*, *these* (plural), *that*, *those* (plural), are called demonstratives, because they indicate certain individuals or things as one might point them out by a gesture. The demonstrative pronouns are not inflected to denote case. *This* and *these* usually refer to persons or things near by or immediately present to the mind; *that* and *those* to persons or things further away or not regarded as so immediately present to the mind.

¹ Neither a relative nor an interrogative pronoun, but a conjunction. See § 148.

² Notice that here, as frequently happens, the relative *that* (or *which*) is omitted. *Whom* may also be omitted (e.g., "a man [whom] you met last year." *Who* (nominative) is rarely omitted in modern prose.

Compare "do give me *this*," *i.e.*, something which we have directly before us, and "do give me *that*," *i.e.*, something at a distance. The distinction in use, however, is sometimes very slight. Both pronouns may be used as demonstrative adjectives. See § 80.

76. Adjective Pronouns. — *This* and *that* are sometimes called adjective pronouns, because they are frequently used as adjectives, as in "*this* man," "*that* woman." See § 80. Many other words that must be classed as pronouns have the same characteristic. *Any* and *each*, for example, may be used as adjectives, as in "*any* man," "*each* woman"; or as pronouns, as in "I do not see *any*," "I must examine *each*." All such words, except the demonstratives, we shall call adjective pronouns when they are used as pronouns, and pronominal adjectives when they are used as adjectives.

The chief adjective pronouns are the following: *former*, *latter*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *other*, *another*, *any*, *many*, *some*, *all*, *few*, *much*, *more*, *most*.

Each other and *one another* are compound adjective pronouns. They are reciprocal in force; that is, they represent persons or things as effecting each other. Very often *each other* refers to two, and *one another* to more than two persons or things. Sometimes the two adjective pronouns which form the compound are used separately, as in "*each* seized the *other's* hand."

77. Indefinite Pronouns. — There remains to be considered a class of pronouns which cannot be used as adjectives, but which strongly resemble some of the words described in the last section. They are true pronouns because they are reference-words, but they refer to an indefinite number or quantity of persons or things, or, like indefinite relatives, to any or no specific person or thing. They are most conveniently classified as indefinite pronouns.

The chief indefinite pronouns are *one*,¹ *any one*, *anybody*, *anybody else*, *every one*, *everybody*, *no one*, *none*, *nobody*, *some one*, *somebody*, *somewhat*, *ought*, and *naught*. None of these words is used in the plural. Some may be used in the possessive, e.g., *any one's*. *Anybody else*, and similar compound indefinite pronouns, usually form the possessives *anybody else's*, *everybody else's*, etc., but such forms as *anybody's else* are not incorrect. *What*, in "I tell you *what*," stands for *somewhat*.²

EXERCISE

Parse the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences :

1. Some were paid in good money, some in bad. 2. Tom Paine seriously demanded that any one who proposed to return to paper money should be punished with death. 3. Arnold had been one of the best of the American commanders. 4. He suspected, as did others, that the French had designs on

¹ *One* is also a numeral adjective. See § 79.

² By nature the pronoun is the equivalent of a noun. It may thus refer to phrases or clauses. As it is, however, a mere reference word, it would be absurd to speak of pronoun-phrases or pronoun clauses.

Canada. 5. Each distrusted the other. 6. Many had learned to hate him; all, to respect him. 7. The aim of most was high, but there was no one to lead them. 8. Much was still to be done. 9. Everybody's business is nobody's business. 10. Does he mistrust aught? 11. I do not purpose to meddle in anybody else's affairs. 12. Some were for surrender, more for an advance. 13. The states were prohibited from laying duties on each other's goods. 14. Both were determined; neither would yield. 15. The former is the proposition I approve. 16. This is my plan. 17. And that is how he served me.

CHAPTER X

ADJECTIVES

78. PREDICATE, ATTRIBUTIVE, AND APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVES. — 79. ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY AND QUANTITY. — 80. DEMONSTRATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, AND RELATIVE ADJECTIVES. — 81. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES. — 82. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES. — 83. METHODS OF COMPARISON. — 84. IRREGULAR COMPARISON. — 85. ADJECTIVES THAT ARE NOT COMPARED. — 86. THE ARTICLES. — 87. NOUNS AS ADJECTIVES. — 88. ADJECTIVE-PHRASES AND ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES.

78. Predicate, Attributive, and Appositive Adjectives.

—An adjective may limit a noun in either of two ways. It may form part of an assertion (or predication) with regard to the noun, as in “the soldier *was brave*,” “the boy *came* from the bath *fresh* and *rosy*,” “the rascal *pinched the child black and blue*.” Such an adjective is called a predicate adjective. On the other hand, an adjective may merely describe a noun, without forming part of an assertion with regard to it. It then serves to describe the noun by stating a quality or characteristic which belongs to it, as in “a *brave* soldier,” “*fresh, rosy* cheeks,” “a *blue* and *silver* suit.” Such an adjective is called an attributive adjective. Appositive adjectives bear to their nouns a relation similar to that of a word in apposition, *e.g.*, “his brain, *dull and stupid*, would no longer work.”

79. Adjectives of Quality and Quantity.—Almost all adjectives limit nouns by stating (1) qualities possessed by them, as in “a *black* hat,” “a *charitable* deed,” “a *violent* measure”; or (2) their amount or quantity, as in “*little* mercy,” “*ten* men.” Adjectives expressing number are technically known as numeral adjectives or numerals. Numerals are of two sorts, cardinal and ordinal. The cardinal (*i.e.*, “principal”) numerals, or cardinals, merely express the idea of number, as in “a *thousand* years,” “*four* and *twenty* blackbirds.” The ordinals designate place (or “order”) in a series, as in “Louis the *Tenth*,” “the *eleventh* hour,” “the *ten thousandth* part.” The cardinals may also be used as nouns, as in “I saw *three* or *four*,” “the crowd dispersed by *twos* and *threes*,” “everything was at *sixes* and *sevens*.”

EXERCISE

Find the adjectives in the following passages. Are they attributive, predicate, or appositive?

1. “Opposite, at the further end of the boat, the little red-petticoated¹ figure of his daughter sat perched¹ upon the tip of a heap of loose stones, which served for the moment as ballast. The day, as has been said, was calm, but the Atlantic is never an absolutely passive object. Every now and then² a slow, sleepy swell would come and lift the boat upon its shoulders, up the long, green, watery slope and down another, setting the heap of stones rolling and grinding one against the other. Whenever this happened, the little figure upon the ballast would get temporarily

¹This word is in form a participle, but its force is that of an adjective, and it may properly be classed as such. See § 98.

²Treat *now and then* as a noun-phrase.

dislodged¹ from its perch, and sent rolling, now to one side, now to the other, according as the boat moved, or the loose freight shifted its position. The next moment, however, with a quick scrambling action, like that of some small marmoset or squirrel, it would have clambered up again into its former place; its feet would have wedged themselves securely into a new position against the stones, the small mouth opening to display a row of white teeth with a laugh of triumphant glee at its own achievement."

2. One skinny arm, brown, naked, and sinewy, rose over the edge of the boat. 3. The girl went up to the boy as he stood there, astonished, furious, red to the roots of his hair with anger and indignant surprise. 4. The mild brown eyes, reposeful and serene, had a look of peculiar contentedness.

80. Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Relative Adjectives. — The demonstrative words *this* and *that* (§ 75), with their respective plurals, may be used as adjectives as well as pronouns.² In the same way *which* and *what* (§ 70) may be used as interrogative adjectives,* and *which*, *what* (§ 71), *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever* (§ 72) may be used as relative adjectives. The uses of each class will be clear from the examples given below:

1. I take *this* [demonstrative] woman to be my wedded wife.
2. *That* [demonstrative] point is clearly made.
3. *Which* [interrogative] course shall you follow?
4. I asked *what* [interrogative] plans he had made.
5. I know by experience what [relative] sort of man he is.³

¹ This word is in form a participle, but its force is that of an adjective, and it may properly be classed as such. See § 98.

² *Yonder* and *yon* are also called demonstrative adjectives.

³ To the present writer, this is equivalent to "I know by experience the sort of man *that* he is," and he accordingly classes *that* as a relative. It is perfectly possible, however, to regard it as an interrogative.

6. Years passed, during which [relative] interval he wandered far.

7. Whatever [indefinite relative] plans you make, you run the risk of failure.

8. Whatsoever [indefinite relative] things are true . . . think on these things.

It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between relative and interrogative adjectives, *e.g.*, "I know *what* pleas you will make" (*i.e.*, I know the pleas *that* you will make) and "I am uncertain *what* reasons you will give." In the latter sentence a question is implied. Wherever a question seems implied the adjective *which* or *what* should be classed as interrogative. See page 100, note 1.

What in "*what* a storm!" "*what* terrible noises!" may be classified as an interrogative adjective, but its force is exclamatory (see § 23), and it may also be called an exclamatory adjective.

81. Pronominal Adjectives.—Demonstrative, interrogative, and relative adjectives are sometimes called pronominal adjectives, that is, adjectives which are also used as pronouns. We shall apply this term more particularly to the class of words which we have treated as adjective pronouns (§ 76). When such words as *many*, *all*, *some* are used as pronouns (*e.g.*, "*many* have come"), we call them adjective pronouns, that is, pronouns that are also used as adjectives. When they are used as adjectives (*e.g.*, "*many* men have come," "*all* men are mortal," "*some* men are rich") we call them pronominal adjectives.

EXERCISE

1. Change the sentences in the exercise following § 77 in such a way that they will contain demonstrative or pronominal adjectives.

2. Change fifteen sentences in the exercise following § 71 in such a way that they will contain relative or interrogative adjectives.

82. Comparison of Adjectives. — With the exception of *this* and *that*, adjectives are not inflected for number; none are inflected for case. Some, however, are inflected to show the degree to which a noun possesses a quality or characteristic. This process is called comparison. There are said to be three degrees of comparison, — the positive, the comparative, and the superlative. Adjectives which simply denote the quality possessed, without stating the degree to which it is possessed, are said to be positive, *e.g.*, “a *clear* day,” “*bright* sunshine.” Adjectives which state that the quality is possessed to a greater extent than by some other object, are said to be comparative, *e.g.*, “a *clearer* day,” “*brighter* sunshine.” Adjectives stating that the quality is possessed to a greater extent than by all other objects, or to the greatest possible extent, are said to be superlative, *e.g.*, “the *clearest* day,” “the *brightest* sunshine.”

83. Methods of Comparison. — Adjectives are compared according to one of two methods: (1) by the addition of *er* and *est* to the positive, to form the comparative and the superlative, *e.g.*, *clear*, *clearer*,

clearest; (2) by using the adverbs *more* and *most* for the same purpose, e.g., *extraordinary*, *more extraordinary*, *most extraordinary*. The adverbs *less* and *least* are employed in a similar way to denote comparison on a descending instead of an ascending scale, e.g., *beautiful*, *less beautiful*, *least beautiful*. The first method is a form of inflection (see § 26), and is the older English method; the second is rather composition (§ 29) than inflection, though its effect is equivalent to that of inflection. It came into use only after the Norman conquest, and through Norman-French influence. Adjectives of one syllable, and some adjectives of two syllables, are usually compared by the addition of *er* and *est*. Some adjectives of two syllables, and all longer adjectives, are usually compared by using *more* and *most*. Thus, we usually say *stranger*, *strangest*; *nobler*, *noblest*; and *more mournful*, *most mournful*; *more particular*, *most particular*. But it is possible to say *more strange*, *most noble*, and *mournfullest*. The ear alone decides which method is preferable.

84. Irregular Comparison. — The following adjectives are irregularly compared:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
1. Bad, ill	worse	wōrst
2. Far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
3. Good, well	better	best
4. Hind ¹	hinder ²	hindermost, hindmost
5. Late	later, latter	latest, last

¹ As in "the *hind* wheels."

² As in "*hinder* part."

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
6. Little	less, lesser ¹	least
7. Many, much	more	most
8. Near, nigh	nearer, nigher	nearest, nighest, next
9. Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

These irregularities are due to changes in the meaning or form of words. A consideration of the ways in which they have come about would be interesting, but is more appropriate to historical grammar than to our present task.

The following comparatives and superlatives are represented in the positive degree by adverbs and not adjectives :

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
[In]	inner	inmost, innermost
[Out]	outer	outmost, outermost
[Up]	upper	upmost, uppermost

Some adjectives ending in *most* have the force of a superlative,² but are not found in the positive or comparative degree, *e.g.*, *midmost*, *northernmost*, etc. *Endmost* and *topmost* are formed from *end* and *top*, which are most frequently found as nouns, though they may be used as adjectives, *e.g.*, "the *end* man," the "*top* layer."

85. Adjectives that are not compared. — The demonstrative, relative, and interrogative adjectives are not capable of comparison. A few pronominal adjectives, such as *many*, *little*, *few*, may be compared. The meaning of the others makes comparison impos-

¹ Note that *lesser* is a double comparative.

² Historically, they are double superlatives, for *m* is part of a very ancient inflectional ending, and *ost* stands for *est*.

sible. The same is true of numeral adjectives. Words like *perfect*, *complete*, *universal*, can be compared only when used loosely. If we say that a custom is *universal*, we mean, strictly, that it extends throughout the universe. We may sometimes say, however, that one custom is "more universal" than another, meaning that it approaches nearer to being universal.

It should be noticed that in "*dearest* mother," "*the strangest* fashion," and similar phrases, comparison is indeed implied, but the force of the superlative is nearly equivalent to "very dear," "very strange."

EXERCISE

1. Compare the adjectives in the exercise following § 79.
2. Construct sentences containing the superlative of each of the adjectives mentioned in § 84.

86. The Articles. — The words *an* or *a* and *the* limit nouns, and are hence to be classified as adjectives. They also bear the special name of articles. *An* is a weakened form of the numeral adjective *one*, and *the* a weakened form of the demonstrative adjective *that*. *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound, and *a* before words beginning with a consonant sound. Such words as *one*, *unit*, it should be noticed, do not begin with a vowel sound, though the first letter in each is a vowel. *An* is also frequently used before words beginning with *h* and not accented on the first syllable, *e.g.*, "*an* historian." *An* or *a* is

called the indefinite article, because it denotes any one of a number of persons or things. *The* is called the definite article, because it usually shows its demonstrative origin in pointing out a particular object or objects. We have a curious reminder of the origin of *the* in the colloquial word *t'other*, i.e., "*that other*," in which the *t* is the final *t* of the older form of the article.

• The *a* in such phrases as "he has gone *a*-fishing" is not the article, but a remnant of the preposition *on*. See § 125. In "three times *a* week," and similar phrases, it is also historically a preposition (compare "a dollar *per* week"), though the force of the prepositions is so completely lost that *a* in such instances is also classed, by some, as the indefinite article. In "many *a* man," "such *a* mess," the article follows the adjective, instead of preceding it. In "*the* more *the* better," and similar phrases, *the* is not an article, but the adverbial use of the objective case (see § 58) of the demonstrative pronoun *that*, and the sense really is, "to that extent to which there is more, to that extent it is better."

87. Nouns as Adjectives.—Nouns are frequently used as adjectives, as in "a *party* question," "the *sound-money* campaign." The force of a noun in the possessive or of a noun in apposition is always that of an adjective.

88. Adjective-Phrases and Adjective-Clauses.—Groups of nouns constituting a phrase may have the force of

an adjective, as in "the *home-rule and disestablishment* programme." As a rule, however, adjective-phrases are introduced by an adjective,¹ as in "the king, *poor in money and land, but rich in affection and reverence*, summoned his subjects for a last heroic attempt." Relative clauses are invariably adjective-clauses, as in "this is the house *that Jack built*," i.e., this is the Jack-built house.

EXERCISE

[In parsing adjectives, it is, as a rule, only necessary to state what noun they limit. It is, however, customary, if adjectives are demonstrative, relative, pronominal, or predicate or appositive in use, to state the fact.]

I. Parse all adjectives in the exercise following § 79.

II. Parse the adjectives, pronouns, and nouns in the following sentences :

1. Adams was somewhat dogmatic, somewhat pedantic, and from his childhood too self-conscious and laboriously self-trained, as his methodical diary shows. 2. Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political; the support of the state governments in all their rights.

III. Parse the adjectives and pronouns in part 2 of the exercise following § 15, and point out (1) the nouns that have the force of adjectives and (2) two adjective-clauses.

¹ Or, much more frequently, by a participle, as we shall see later (§ 126).

CHAPTER XI

VERBS : CONJUGATION

89. KINDS OF VERBS.—**90. TRANSITIVE VERBS; INTRANSITIVE VERBS; VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION.**—**91. IMPERSONAL VERBS.**—**92. CONJUGATION.**—**93. VOICE.**—**94. MOOD.**—**95. TENSES.**—**96. PERSON AND NUMBER.**—**97. THE INFINITIVES.**—**98. PARTICIPLES.**—**99. WHAT THE CONJUGATION OF A VERB INCLUDES.**—**100. CONJUGATION OF THE VERBS *Be* AND *Have*.**—**101. CONSONANT VERBS AND VOWEL VERBS.**—**102. CONJUGATION OF *Love* AND *Find*.**—**103. THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF A VERB.**—**104. DEFECTIVE VERBS.**

89. Kinds of Verbs.—Verbs, as we have seen, are words with which we make statements or assertions.¹ They are of two kinds: transitive and intransitive.

90. Transitive Verbs; Intransitive Verbs; Verbs of Incomplete Predication.—Verbs that require an object to complete their sense are called transitive (*i.e.*, verbs in which the action “goes over” into an object). *Take*, for instance, is a transitive verb, for we cannot make complete sense by the statement, “the man takes,” without saying what he takes. Verbs that do not require an object to complete their sense are called intransitive. *Go*, for example, is an intransitive verb, for we can say “the

¹ From another point of view, the verb may be defined as a word that expresses (*a*) action or (*b*) state, *e.g.*, (*a*) “I *strike*” or (*b*) “I *am*.” A verb usually expresses action.

man goes," making thereby a complete statement. Transitive verbs take objects and intransitive verbs do not. Some verbs may at one time be transitive and at another intransitive. We say, for example, "I *see* him" (transitive), and "I *see*" (intransitive), in the sense of "understand"; "I *ran* the engine" (transitive), and "I *ran* down the hill" (intransitive). The theoretical distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not easy to make, for almost every English verb may, in some sense or other, be used intransitively. Even the verb "take," which we have used above as an illustration of a transitive verb, is practically intransitive in the command "*take* and eat," and fully intransitive in the colloquial expression "it *takes*," *i.e.*, it attracts interest or receives approval. On the other hand, it is not hard to distinguish, in any particular instance, between a verb that takes an object and a verb that does not take an object.

The intransitive verbs *be*, *become*, and *seem*, which do not express a complete idea, *e.g.*, "I *am*," "I *seem*," are called verbs of incomplete predication. Other verbs, such as *feel*, *look*, *appear*, fall into the same class, in some of their uses, *e.g.*, "I *feel* well," "he *looked* cheerful." *Be* is sometimes called a copula or link-word. In the rare sense of "exist," it is not a verb of incomplete predication, *e.g.*, "God *is*." These verbs are followed by the nominative, not the objective case, and by adjectives, not adverbs. See §§ 55, 3, and 159.

91. Impersonal Verbs. — Certain intransitive verbs are most frequently used with the subject *it* (e.g., “it *snows*,” “it *rains*”), which has, in such cases, no reference to any definite object. “It *snows*” merely means that snow is falling, not that anything is snowing. Such verbs, when used in this way, are called impersonal verbs. Almost all these verbs, however, may be used in other ways, with personal subjects, as transitive or intransitive verbs, e.g., “the Lord *rained* fire upon them,” “the earth *thundered* beneath their tread.”

EXERCISE

In the exercises following § 18 and § 25, point out the intransitive, transitive, and impersonal verbs, and those of incomplete predication.

92. Conjugation. — Verbs undergo regular changes in form (or are inflected, see § 26) to express differences in meaning. The sum of a verb's inflections is called its conjugation. The inflection or conjugation of a verb is sometimes carried on, as we shall see, by the addition of words as well as by changes in the word itself. *Shall see*, for instance, may be regarded as a form of the verb *see*, exactly as *John's* is regarded as a form of the noun *John*, though in the former instance an independent word is added and in the latter only a purely inflectional ending. Verbs are inflected to express voice, mood, tense, person, and number.

93. Voices. — Verbs that represent the subject as acting (e.g., “I *strike*,” “I *believe* him”) are said to be

in the active voice. Verbs that represent the subject as acted upon (*e.g.*, “*I was struck*,” “*he was believed*”) are said to be in the passive¹ voice. Transitive verbs may occur in both the active and the passive voices, as has been shown by the examples given above. This is because the object of a transitive verb can always be made the subject of the same verb in the passive. “*I struck him*” may be changed into “*he was struck by me*”; “*I believe him*” into “*he was believed by me*.” Intransitive verbs have no passives, for, as they do not take objects, they are powerless to represent anything as acted upon.

EXERCISE

In the passage following § 14, which verbs are active and which passive? N.B. — Verbs of incomplete predication (§ 90) are, strictly speaking, neither active nor passive.

94. Moods. — In the active and passive voices alike verbs are said to be in the (1) indicative, (2) subjunctive, or (3) imperative moods, according as they represent statements (1) as actual facts, (2) as thoughts, (3) as commands.

I. The indicative mood is by far the most common of the three, for we usually represent statements as facts. In each of the following assertions, for example, the verbs state something as an undoubted fact,² rather than as a conceivable thought : (1) “the coach slowly

¹ *Passive* means “enduring,” that is, acted upon.

² With a negative word, as a negative fact, *e.g.*, “*I shall not come*.”

climbed the hill"; (2) "if he *comes* to-day, I *shall meet* him at the station"; (3) "if you *are* the proper person, I *will pay* you the whole amount." The verbs *climbed*, *shall meet*, and *will pay* assert statements as facts, and the verbs *comes* and *are* assume statements as conditional or hypothetical facts.

II. The subjunctive mood represents statements as thoughts or conceptions, which may or may not have a basis in reality, or which are obviously not conceivable as facts. In "if you *are* the proper person, I *will pay* you the whole amount," the verbs are in the indicative. In (1) "God *grant* that she *be* safe," (2) "if I *be* I, as I think [that] I *be*," (3) "if you *were* the proper person, you could show proof of it," the italicized verbs are in the subjunctive mood. In (1) *grant*, instead of the indicative *grants*, shows that the act of granting is not assumed or asserted as a fact, but wished, hoped, or prayed for. In (1) and (2) the subjunctives *be*, instead of the indicatives *is* and *am*, show that the speaker has doubts of the assertion. In (3) *were*, instead of the indicative *are*, shows that the hypothesis cannot be accepted, that "you" are not to be considered as the "proper person."

The subjunctive mood is very little used in Modern English, for our language, with its intolerance of slight or unnecessary distinctions by means of inflection, has slowly dropped it. Now and then, however, it occurs, especially in the conditional phrases "if I *were*," "if it *be*," etc., and it behooves an educated man or

woman to understand and appreciate this most delicate form of expression by inflection in our language, involving a distinction which must, in many cases, be felt, for it cannot be analyzed. For a further treatment of the subjunctive, see §§ 167-172.

III. The imperative mood, which is much more common than the subjunctive, expresses command or entreaty (*e.g.*, “go away,” “hit him”). It is usually found only in the second person, that is, with the implied subject *you* (*ye* or *thou*, in antique expressions), inasmuch as commands and entreaties are addressed to other persons than the speaker. Even, when we pretend to command or entreat ourselves, we address ourselves in the second person. But there is a rare imperative of the first person (*e.g.*, “charge we upon the foe”) to cover cases in which the speaker addresses himself as well as others. For “*let us advance*,” and similar expressions, see § 106.

EXERCISE¹

In the following sentences, which verbs are indicative, which subjunctive, and which imperative?

1. Though justice be thy plea, consider this. 2. Be merciful : take thrice thy money ; bid me tear the bond. 3. Thy will be done. 4. Long live the king. 5. I wish that I were safe at home. 6. It is proposed that the two companies be united. 7. This night, before the cock crow, thou shalt deny me thrice. 8. If my son were here, I could not conceal the fact. 9. Unless love go with marriage, the bond is a mockery.

¹ Pupils will need considerable help on this exercise, and it may be better not to assign it as a lesson, but to use it in class-work as illustrative of the principles stated in the foregoing sections. It is inserted in the hope of helping students to obtain a feeling for the subjunctive.

95. Tenses. — Verbs are said to be in one tense (from the Latin *tempus*, or “time”) or another according as they represent action as going on at one time or another (*e.g.*, “I *go*,” “I *went*”). In English we recognize six tenses: the present, the past, the future, the perfect, the pluperfect¹ (or past perfect), and the future perfect. In the (1) present, (2) past, and (3) future tenses a verb represents acts as (1) taking place (*e.g.*, “I *go*”); (2) as having already taken place (*e.g.*, “I *went*”); and (3) as going to take place (*e.g.*, “I *shall go*”). The (4) perfect, (5) pluperfect, and (6) future perfect represent respectively acts as (4) completed at the present moment (*e.g.*, “I *have gone*”); as (5) completed at some time in the past (*e.g.*, “I *had gone*”); and as (6) to be completed at some time in the future (*e.g.*, “I *shall have gone*”). The force of (4), (5), and (6) can be more clearly seen from the following examples: (4) “I *have finished* [perfect] my work and *am* [present] now at leisure”; (5) “I *had made* [pluperfect] my arrangements before I *received* [past] your telegram”; (6) “I *shall have completed* [future perfect] my arrangements before your telegram *will reach* [future] me.” The present and the past are the only tenses formed by inflection. All the others are made by adding to the verb parts of the verbs *be* and *have*. It is this method, common to most of the modern Indo-European languages, that distinguishes them sharply from the older Indo-European languages. In Latin,

¹ From the Latin *plusquam perfectum*, “more than perfect.”

for example, distinctions of voice, mood, and tense were represented in the great majority of instances by changes in the form of the verb, and not by the addition of separate words.

EXERCISE¹

Name the tenses of the italicized verbs in the following sentences. Are the verbs active or passive?

1. It *was* the Norman conquest that *had* primarily *brought* about the degradation of the native speech. 2. If many words belonging to the Anglo-Saxon *have disappeared* from the tongue now spoken, their places *have been* more than *supplied* by importations from foreign sources. 3. These *have* now *become* so thoroughly identified with the words that *have come* from the original speech, that, in a large number of cases, no one but the special student *is* conscious of any difference in their origin. 4. Oranges and lemons, *say* the bells of St. Clement's. 5. The north wind *doth blow*, and we *shall have* snow. 6. An old woman *was sweeping* her house, and she *found* a little crooked sixpence. 7. When the last foe *shall have been driven* from our shores, then, and not till then, *will* the war *cease*. 8. Little Tommy Tucker *sings* for his supper. What *shall* he *eat*? White bread and butter.

96. Person and Number. — In the older Indo-European languages verbs were inflected to indicate the first, second, and third persons in both the singular and the plural numbers. In Latin, for example, *amo* means "I love"; *amas*, "thou lovest"; *amat*, "he loves"; *amamus*, "we love"; *amatis*, "you [plural] love"; *amant*, "they love." In Mod-

¹ The conjugation of the tenses has not yet been given, but it is not thought that the pupil will have difficulty in identifying them. The exercise may, however, be used for purposes of illustration.

ern English very few such inflections remain. In antique phraseology we still use the expressions "thou *lovest*" and "he *walketh*"; but, aside from these almost obsolete forms, the only distinction of the sort that we make is in the present tense between *loves* and *love*. We say "I, we, you, or they *love*," but "he, she, or it *loves*." In the past tense no such distinction is made: we say "I, we, you, they, he, she, or it *loved*." An exception is made in the case of the verb *be*, which has several inflectional forms, as we shall soon see.

EXERCISE

State the tense, the person, and the number of the italicized verbs in the following sentences. Are the verbs transitive or intransitive; active or passive; indicative, subjunctive, or imperative?

1. What *hast* thou *done*? 2. *Make* haste. 3. I *feel* perfectly happy. 4. It *was* a lucky hit that I *made*. 5. A gunshot *was heard*. 6. *Entreat* me not to leave thee. 7. We *shall* now *enter* on our task. 8. Though the king *command* me, I *shall* not *budge*. 9. They *had spoken* the truth. 10. *Fear* not.

97. Infinitives. — Two important parts of the verb we have not yet described, the infinitive and the participle. The infinitive is a verbal noun or verb-noun, that is, a word which has the force both of a verb and of a noun (*e.g.*, "*seeing* is *believing*," "*to hear* is *to obey*"). Here the italicized words are roughly equivalent to the nouns *sight*, *belief*, *comprehension*, *obedience*, and have the construction of nouns, in that they are subjects of the verb *is* or predicate nominatives

after the same verb. But, though they do, not make statements, they have also the force of verbs, in that they represent acts as being accomplished or a process as being carried on.¹ The infinitive has three forms: (1) with the sign *to*, as in one of the examples given above; (2) without the sign *to*, as in "I can *do* it"; and (3) with the ending *ing*,² as in one of the examples given above. The infinitive may be active (*e.g.*, *to love*), or passive (*to be loved*); and may be present or perfect in form (*to love*, *to have loved*), though the distinction is not strictly one of time. (see § 114). The force and use of the infinitive will be explained later (§§ 115-122).

98. Participles. — A participle is a verb-adjective. As a verb, it expresses action; as an adjective, it modifies a noun or its equivalent. In "the *rushing* river," for instance, *rushing* is a participle, modifying *river*; in "*seizing* him by the arm, his friend led him away," *seizing* is a participle, modifying *friend*. In the former case, the participle describes the noun as an adjective would, and contains also the idea of action. In the latter case, the participle does not exactly describe its noun, but represents action as connected with it. Participles may be active (*e.g.*, *loving*) or passive (*loved* or *being loved*); and

¹ It was long customary to call the infinitive (literally, "unlimited") a mood of the verb, because it represents the essential thought of the verb without limitation of time, *i.e.*, *to hear* is the act of "hearing," whether in the present, past, or future. But this is really equivalent to saying that this part of the verb has the force of a noun or is a verbal noun.

² This form is sometimes called the gerund.

present (*loving*), past (*loved*), or perfect (*having loved*), though here, as in the case of the infinitive, the distinction is not strictly one of time (see § 114). All words in *ing* are not necessarily participles (see § 128).

EXERCISE

The teacher is recommended to illustrate the statements made in the preceding section from the exercises following §§ 122 and 127, postponing practice in recognizing and parsing infinitives and participles until these exercises are reached.

99. What the Conjugation of a Verb includes. — As is shown by the foregoing analysis, the conjugation of a verb consists of the various forms which it takes, by inflection or in combination with parts of other verbs, to express (1) voice, (2) mood, (3) tense, (4) person, (5) number, together with its infinitives and participles. For our present purpose we shall omit the subjunctive mood. It is rarely used, and can be appropriately and conveniently treated under Syntax (see §§ 167-172).

100. Conjugation of the Verbs *Be* and *Have*. — As the verbs *be* and *have* are used in forming the conjugation of almost all other verbs, it will be convenient to begin our study of conjugation with them.

BE

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I am	we are
<i>Second Person,</i>	you are (thou art)	you (ye) are
<i>Third Person,</i>	he is	they are

PAST TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I was	we were
<i>Second Person,</i>	you were (thou wert)	you were
<i>Third Person,</i>	he was	they were

FUTURE TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I shall be	we shall be
<i>Second Person,</i>	you will be (thou wilt be)	you will be
<i>Third Person,</i>	he will be	they will be

PERFECT TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I have been	we have been
<i>Second Person,</i>	you have been (thou hast been)	you have been
<i>Third Person,</i>	he has been	they have been

PLUPERECT TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I had been	we had been
<i>Second Person,</i>	you had been (thou hadst been)	you had been
<i>Third Person,</i>	he had been	they had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I shall have been	we shall have been
<i>Second Person,</i>	you will have been (thou wilt have been)	you will have been
<i>Third Person,</i>	he will have been	they will have been

Imperative mood, be. *Infinitives:* *present*, [to] be, being; *perfect*, [to] have been, having been. *Participles:* *present*, being; *past*, been; *perfect*, having been.

NOTES.—Historical grammar shows that the conjugation of this verb is based on three different root-verbs: one is seen in *was*, *were*; another in *be*, *been*; and another still in *am*.—An

old form (*be*) of the third person plural of the present indicative is used in literary English in rare instances, particularly in poetry, with a peculiarly impressive effect; *e.g.*, "where be the gloomy shades and desolate mountains." It is also very commonly heard in vulgar English in all three persons; *e.g.*, "where be they?" — Notice that the future is formed by the aid of *shall*, and the perfect tenses by the aid of *have*. *Be* is, of course, an intransitive verb, and is never found in the passive.

HAVE

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.		PAST.	
I have	we have	I had	we had
you have	you have	you had	you had
(thou hast)		(thou hadst)	
he has	they have	he had	they had

FUTURE.

I shall have	we shall have
you will have (thou wilt have)	you will have
he will have	they will have

PERFECT.

I have had	we have had
you have had (thou hast had)	you have had
he has had	they have had

PLUPERFECT.

I had had	we had had
you had (thou hadst) had	you had had
he had had	they had had

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have had	we shall have had
you will (thou wilt) have had	you will have had
he will have had	they will have had

Imperative, have. *Infinitives*: *present*, [to] have, having; *perfect*, [to] have had; having had. *Participles*: *present*, having; *past*, had; *perfect*, having had.

101. Consonant Verbs and Vowel Verbs. — As regards conjugation English verbs may be divided into two great classes: (1) those that form their past tense by adding *d*, *t*, or *ed* to the present tense, as *love*, *loved*; *burn*, *burned* or *burnt*; and (2) those that form their past tenses by changing the vowel of the present, as *run*, *ran*. The first method is that followed by the majority of English verbs, and has become the regular method for all new verbs (*e.g.*, *telephone*, *telephoned*). Verbs of the first class have, therefore, frequently been called *regular* verbs. They are also called *weak* verbs, because they must make use of an inflectional ending to indicate the past tense. Verbs of the second class have similarly been called *irregular* verbs, because they form their past tense in several other ways, or *strong* verbs, because they form their past tense by an internal change, without the aid of an inflectional ending. It makes little difference what names we give to these two classes of verbs, but it seems, on the whole, better to call them *consonant* verbs and *vowel* verbs.¹ Consonant verbs² are those that make their past tense by the addition of the consonant *d* (*ed*) or *t* (*e.g.*, *love*, *loved*). Vowel verbs are those that make their past tense by a change in the vowel of the present tense (*e.g.*, *run*, *ran*). We shall now examine the conjugation of a typical verb of each class.

¹ See Sweet, *New English Grammar*, part i (1892), p. 391.

² Verbs like *lay*, *laid* (for "layed"), *say*, *said*, etc., are to be regarded as consonant verbs. The change of the vowel is merely a question of spelling. Some verbs, *e.g.*, *catch*, *caught*, both change the vowel and take the ending. They belong to both classes.

EXERCISE

Are the following words vowel verbs or consonant verbs?

Abide, amuse, awake, bind, bleach, dwell, find, pen, ride, rise, strike, stint, strike.

102. Conjugation of *Love* and *Find*.—The subjunctive mood, it should be noticed, is reserved for treatment under Syntax, §§ 167–172.

LOVE

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
<i>Present.</i>		<i>Present.</i>	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
I love	we love	I am loved	we are loved
you love	you love	you are loved	you are loved
(thou lovest)		(thou art loved)	
he loves	they love	he is loved	they are loved
PAST.		PAST.	
I loved	we loved	I was you were, ¹ etc. } loved	
you loved	you loved		
(thou lovedst)			
they loved	they loved		
FUTURE.		FUTURE.	
I shall	we shall	I shall ¹ you will, etc. } be loved	
you will	you will		
(thou wilt)			
he will	they will		
PERFECT.		PERFECT.	
I have	} loved	I have	} been loved
you have, ² etc.		you have, ² etc.	

¹ The other forms follow the conjugation of *be*, § 100.

² The other forms follow the conjugation of *have*. See § 100.

PAST PERFECT.		PAST PERFECT.	
I had ¹ loved		I had ¹ been loved	
FUTURE PERFECT.		FUTURE PERFECT.	
I shall have loved		I shall have been loved	
IMPERATIVE.			
Love		Be loved	
INFINITIVE.			
<i>Present active</i> , [to] love, loving			
<i>Perfect active</i> , [to] have loved, having loved			
<i>Present passive</i> , [to] be loved, being loved			
<i>Perfect passive</i> , [to] have been loved, having been loved			
PARTICIPLES.			
<i>Present</i> , loving		<i>Present</i> , loved, being loved	
<i>Past</i> , loved		<i>Perfect</i> , having been loved	
<i>Perfect</i> , having loved			

FIND

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.		
<i>Indicative.</i>		<i>Indicative.</i>		
Present.		Present.		
I find	we find	I am you are, etc. } found		
you find	you find			
(thou findest)				
he finds	they find			
Past.		Past.		
I found	we found	I was you were, etc. } found		
you found	you found			
(thou foundest)				
he found	they found			

The rest of the conjugation is exactly parallel to that of *love*.

NOTES. — The old-fashioned second person singular of the present appears variously as *lovest*, *lov'st*, or *lovst*. Sometimes

¹ The other forms follow the conjugation of *have*. See § 100.

where the corresponding ending of the past would be difficult to pronounce, it is dropped entirely, as in "thou *cast*" for "thou *castedst*." There is also an antique form in *eth* for the third person singular of the present tense, e.g., "he *prayeth* best who *loveth* best."

103. The Principal Parts of a Verb. — The conjugation of a verb is based on three principal forms, or "principal parts," — the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle. From these forms, by combination with the verbs *shall*, *have*, and *be*, are made all the other verb-forms. An English-speaking person can in most cases discover the principal parts of a verb by reflecting what form he would use in speech. He knows that he says "I *love*," in the present; "I *loved*," in the past; "I *have loved*," in the perfect, and, similarly, "I *find*," "I *found*," "I *have found*." As the perfect tense is formed by the combination of *have* with the past participle, he knows that the principal parts of the verbs *love* and *find* are *love*, *loved*, *loved*; *find*, *found*, *found*. If, in the case of any verb, he be in doubt as to these principal forms, his natural resource is the dictionary. It will not, therefore, be necessary to give here the long list of the irregular consonant verbs and of the various sets of vowel verbs. We shall, however, consider for a moment the more important of the ways by which verbs form the past tense and the past participle.

Consonant verbs, as we have seen, form the past tense by the addition of *d* (*ed*) or *t* to the present. The past participle is usually identical in form with the past tense. The usual ending is (*e*)*d*, but in a

number of cases *t* only is found, as in *send*, *sent* (for "sended"). Sometimes, also, both forms are used, as in *builded* or *built*, *dreamed* or *dreamt*. The addition of the consonant ending sometimes brings about slight changes, as in *leave*, *left*, which scarcely entitle a word to be classed as a vowel verb. A few consonant verbs change the vowel, as well as add a consonant,¹ *e.g.*, *seek*, *sought* ; *sell*, *sold*.

No general rules can be given for the changes of vowels in the past tenses of vowel verbs. The principal parts of almost all these verbs seem at first an inextricable mass of irregularities, and often only a thorough knowledge of the history of the language, from the earliest times down, will enable the student to understand why one form rather than another is used. Many of the vowel verbs may, however, be arranged in certain groups, the members of each of which agree in making the same vowel changes. The past participle of vowel verbs usually ends in *en* or *n*. These groups are as follows :

1. Verbs that change *i* (in the present tense) to *o* (in the past), *e.g.*, *drive*, *drove*, *driven*. Others are *ride*, *rise*, *shine*, *smite*, *stride*, *strive*, *thrive*, *write*.

2. Verbs that change *i* (present) to *a* or *u* (past) and *u* (past participle²), *e.g.*, *drink*, *drank*, *drunk*. Others are *begin*, *cling*, *fling*, *ring*, *shrink*, *sing*, *sink*,

¹ See § 101, note 2.

² Notice that these verbs do not have a past participle ending in *(e)n*, except in the case of *drunken*, *shrunk*, and *sunken*, and that these are now used almost invariably as adjectives.

sling, slink, spin, spring, stick, sting, stink, swim, swing, wring.

3. Verbs that change *ea* (present) into *o* (past), and *o* (past participle), *e.g.*, *bear, bore, born(e)*. Others are *break, heave, shear, speak, steal, swear, tear, tread, weave*.

4. Verbs that change *o* (present) into *e* (past). The past participle usually retains the vowel of the present. *E.g.*, *blow, blew, blown*. Others are *crow, grow, hold, know, throw*.

Some verbs are unchanged in their principal parts, *e.g.*, *quit*. Others are *cast, cost, cut, hit, hurt, let, put, rid, set, spread, thrust*.

Having once noticed these few groups of verbs with uniform principal parts, the pupil need not concern himself further about them. A knowledge of the parts of English verbs he can best gather from reading and observation. Whenever he is in doubt as to the form of a particular verb, he should consult a standard dictionary or the list of principal parts given in a standard grammar. Advanced students will find a clear and interesting account of the Old English vowel and consonant verbs, their various classes, and the history of the changes that have occurred in their inflection in Middle and Modern English, in Lounsbury's *History of the English Language*, revised edition (1894), part ii, chap. 5, and Emerson's *History of the English Language* (1895), chap. 21.

A list of all common vowel verbs, and of all con-

sonant verbs that exhibit marked peculiarities, with their principal parts, is given in the Appendix, IV.

EXERCISE

State the present, past, and perfect tenses of the following verbs :

Beat, beseech, bleed, bring, buy, drink, fall, flee, freeze, hold, shake, shine, sink, slide, stave, swim, teach, weave, wet.

104. Defective Verbs. — A few verbs are defective, that is, they appear only in certain forms and cannot be conjugated throughout. The most important¹ of these defective verbs are *shall, will, may, can, must, ought*.

Must and *ought* are used only in the present tense. The remainder have the past tenses *should, would, might, could*,² but no other tense forms.³ These verbs make no inflectional change to denote person or number,⁴ except in the second person singular, for which there are the antiquated forms *shalt, wilt*,

¹ Less important are *quoth*, the past tense of an old verb meaning "to say," used only in the first and third persons singular (rarely, plural) with the subject following it, e.g., *quoth he*; *hight*, "is or was called," a past tense, now rarely used in poetry as a present or past passive, e.g., "father he *hight*"; *yclept*, the past participle of a verb meaning "to call," now rarely used, under the same conditions as the preceding, e.g., *yclept Launcelot*, "called Launcelot."

² The *l* in *could* was inserted to make the past tense analogous to those of *shall* and *will*, where the *l* was a part of the verb.

³ In the sense of "determine," *will* may be conjugated throughout as a regular consonant verb, e.g., "he *wills* to do it," "he *has willed* that it shall be done."

⁴ That these verbs do not add *s* in the third person singular of the present is due to the fact that they were originally past tenses.

mayst, canst, oughtest (present); and *shouldst, wouldst, mightest, couldst* (past). *Must* is invariable.

Shall and *will* are used to form the future of the verb *be* (§ 100), and, in combination with an infinitive, to form all future tenses. Peculiarities in the use and meaning of *shall* and *will* will be discussed in § 107. The past tenses *should, would, might, could*, do not have the usual force of past tenses, as will be explained in §§ 110–113. The chief use of these verbs is as auxiliaries (§ 106).

Must, ought, should, would, may, might, can, and could are frequently employed in combination with a perfect infinitive, *e.g., should have gone, might have gone*. These expressions are to be classed as verb-phrases (§ 105), as in the indicative or subjunctive mood, according to the circumstances, and as in the perfect tense.

EXERCISE

Run rapidly over the exercises on pages 156 and 161, pointing out the verbs, and stating whether they are transitive, intransitive, or of incomplete predication; active or passive; and in what tenses they are found.

CHAPTER XII

VERB-PHRASES, AUXILIARY VERBS, AND VERBALS

105. VERB-PHRASES. — **106.** AUXILIARY VERBS. — **107.** *Shall* and *Will* — **103.** *May*. — **109.** *Can*. — **110.** *Should*. — **111.** *Would*. — **112.** *Might*. — **113.** *Could*. — **114.** VERBALS. — **115.** *To* WITH THE INFINITIVE. — **116.** THE INFINITIVE AS SUBJECT. — **117.** THE INFINITIVE AS OBJECT OF A VERB. — **118.** THE INFINITIVE AFTER A PREPOSITION. — **119.** THE COMPLEMENTARY INFINITIVE. — **120.** THE POSSESSIVE WITH THE INFINITIVE. — **121.** THE OBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE. — **122.** THE SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE. — **123.** WORDS PARTICIPIAL ONLY IN FORM. — **124.** ATTRIBUTIVE PARTICIPLES. — **125.** PREDICATE PARTICIPLES. — **126.** APPOSITIVE PARTICIPLES. — **127.** ABSOLUTE PARTICIPLES. — **128.** CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS IN *ing*.

105. Verb-Phrases. — It will be remembered that, strictly speaking, only two tenses of the English verb are formed by inflection, the present and the past, and only one voice, the active. The other tenses of the active voice, and all the tenses of the passive voice, are formed by combinations of the infinitives and participles of the verb with various parts of the verbs *be* and *have*. All such compound expressions may, strictly speaking, be called verb-phrases, *i.e.*, groups of two or more words, which, taken together, can be regarded as verbs. It has been thought expedient in this book, however, to follow the time-honored custom of considering the conjugation of the verb as including the passive voice and the compound

tenses, and to reserve the term verb-phrases for such expressions as *I do love*, *I am loving*, etc. The first of these verb-phrases is composed of *do* (*did*) and the infinitive of the verb (§ 97). It occurs in the present and the past tenses,¹ and is known as the *emphatic* form of the verb.² The second is composed of *be* and the present participle of the verb. It may be conjugated throughout (*e.g.*, *I am loving*, *I was loving*, *I am being loved*, etc.), and is known as the *progressive* form of the verb, because it indicates that the action or condition denoted by the verb is, was, or will be going on at the time referred to. Similar verb-phrases are "*I am about to love*," "*I am to love*."³ For the infinitive in such expressions, see § 119.

106. Auxiliary Verbs. — Auxiliary or helping verbs are those used in combination with the infinitives or participles of a verb to complete its conjugation or to form verb-phrases. The auxiliary verbs are *be*, *have*, *let*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *ought*. Of these *be* is used in all the forms of the passive voice, in the future tenses of the active voice, and in several verb-

¹ In the perfect, *e.g.*, "*I have done lost it* (*I done lost it*)," the phrase is confined to vulgar English.

² This form is now regularly used in questions involving the present and past tenses, *e.g.*, "*did you not love him?*" instead of "*loved you him not?*"

³ An adverb or preposition is sometimes so closely joined in meaning with a verb that both together may be taken as verb-phrase, *e.g.*, "*I laughed at him heartily*," "he could not be found when he *was looked for*."

phrases (§ 105); *have* is used in all perfect tenses.¹ All the other auxiliary verbs are used in combination with the simple infinitive (§ 97), *e.g.*, "I do *love*." *Let* with the infinitive supplies the lacking imperative of the first and third persons (§ 94), *e.g.*, "let *us* go," "let *them* go." *Do* is used in the emphatic verb-phrase (§ 105); and *must* and *ought* in verb-phrases expressing necessity and obligation, *e.g.*, "I *must* go," "I *ought* to *have* gone."² The uses of the other auxiliaries will require more detailed explanation.

107. *Shall* and *Will*. — *Shall* and *will* are used with the infinitive to form the future tenses of all verbs, as well as verb-phrases. The distinction between *shall* and *will* in the future tense and in these verb-phrases is often a delicate one and should be carefully studied. Not to make the distinction is generally regarded as a sign of imperfect education, though such misuses are common in the United States, Scotland, and Ireland, and to a less extent in England. Indeed, some philologists affirm that the distinction is an artificial one (it is certainly not older than the eighteenth century), for which schoolmasters and rhetoricians are largely responsible. The main differences between the uses of *shall* and *will* can, however, be easily mastered.

In the first place, the future tense (§ 102) of all

¹ Certain intransitive verbs of motion, *come*, *go*, and *arrive*, may make their perfects and pluperfects with *am* and *was*, in accordance with an old usage, instead of with *have* and *had*, *e.g.*, "I *am* come," "he *is* gone." Compare the similar usage in French and German.

² With *ought* the sign of the infinitive (*to*) is expressed. See § 97.

verbs employs *shall* in the first person and *will* in the other two persons, e.g., "*I or we shall go*," "*you will go*," "*they will go*." This is the invariable usage in all expressions denoting future action. In the second place, the auxiliaries may be used to form verb-phrases, in which the original meanings of *shall* (obligation) and *will* (inclination or determination) are prominent. In these verb-phrases the use of the auxiliaries is exactly the opposite of that in the future tense; that is, *will* is used with the first person, *shall* with the second and third persons.¹ "*I or we will go*," then, is a verb-phrase, meaning "*I or we intend to go*"; "*you or they shall go*," is a verb-phrase equivalent to "*you or they are obliged to go*."

In questions of the first person *will* is not used. We say "*shall we go?*" not "*will we go?*" We may use *will*, however, with the negative when the verb is, as it were, quoted from a preceding affirmative statement, e.g., "*we will go, won't we?*" In questions of the second and third persons either *shall* or *will* is used, according to the answer expected. "*Shall you go?*" implies the answer "*I shall (not)*." "*Will you go?*" implies "*I will (not)*."²

¹ It may assist the pupil to bear in mind that *shall* implies that the speaker is in control of the action expressed by the verb. It can be used, then, only when (1) he speaks of his own action, that is, in the first person, and (2) when he commands. *Shall* is, however, sometimes used in conditional clauses referring to the future, or in relative clauses having a conditional force, with the force of a subjunctive, e.g., "*if a man shall steal an ox . . . he shall restore five oxen*." Compare *should*, § 110.

² All that is said above may be easily mastered. The real difficulty in the distinction between *shall* and *will* comes in subordinate

EXERCISE

In the following sentences point out (1) the auxiliary verbs, stating in what tense they are found; (2) the infinitives; (3) the verb-phrases, stating their force. With regard to *shall* or *will*, distinguish between its use as (4) a form of the future tense, and (5) as a part of a verb-phrase.

1. Let me go. 2. Let us go. 3. After I am gone, you shall do what you choose. 4. How do you do? 5. You must go at once. 6. You must have started early. 7. You ought to go at once. 8. You ought to have started early. 9. You shall start early. 10. They will have a long journey. 11. I am wondering when they will go. 12. When shall they go? 13. I will make no attempt of the sort. 14. You will do¹ nothing of the sort. 15. I shall do nothing to hinder you. 16. I am about to start on a perilous journey. 17. I am not to whisper a word of it. 18. I do hope you will be prudent. 19. Did you hear it? 20. I fear that we shall be too late. 21. He hopes that he shall arrive in season. 22. He says that he will come. 23. Do you believe him? I don't.

108. *May*. — The auxiliary *may* is employed to form verb-phrases, which are used in the following

clauses. Shall we say (1) "he says that he *will* come," or "he says that he *shall* come"? Here the rule is that when the subjects of the principal and subordinate clauses are the same, the auxiliary is that which would be used if the subordinate clause were expressed in the form of a quotation. That is, the sentence given above is equivalent to (2) "he says 'I *shall* or *will* come,'" and we use "he *shall*" or "he *will*" in (1) according as we should use "I *shall*" or "I *will*" in (2). It is clear, then, that we cannot say (3) "he fears that he *will* be too late," for that would be equivalent to (4) "his fear is, 'I *will* be too late,'" and as *will* with the first person denotes inclination, this would mean that he wanted to be too late.

¹ *Will* in the future tense is sometimes a polite way of stating a command.

ways: (1) to denote *permission*, as in "you *may* now go"; (2) to denote *possibility*, as in "I *may* go and again I *may* not"; (3) in poetry or formal prose, to denote a wish, as in "*may* you *return* in safety"; and (4) in slightly formal language, in connection with a future event, to express *uncertainty* with respect to its occurrence, as in "I hope that you *may* *arrive* safely." Uses (3) and (4) are such as are expressed in most Indo-European languages by the subjunctive (§§ 94 and 169, 2), and some grammarians class them as subjunctives even in modern English. They may, perhaps, be better accounted for as equivalents of the subjunctive.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences distinguish indicative verb-phrases denoting permission or possibility from those equivalent to the subjunctive.

1. May you never regret it.
2. You may leave the room.
3. I hope that we may now live together in peace.
4. However that may be, I do not believe him.
5. I may buy the house, but I prefer to rent it.

109. *Can*. — The auxiliary *can* is used to form verb-phrases denoting *ability* or *possibility*, as in "I *can* do so." It is distinguished from *may* in that it usually indicates a physical possibility,¹ as in "I *can* lift it."

110. *Should*. — We now come to the past tenses of the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, which have some

¹ The distinction is clearest in questions. "May I?" asks permission; "can I?" inquires as to possibility.

uses that are difficult of explanation. A verb-phrase formed by *should* and an infinitive may be used in four ways: (1) to denote *duty* or *obligation*, as in "you *should* not *hesitate* to help him"; (2) to represent the future tense in a subordinate clause,¹ as in "the lieutenant reported that he *should be* ready at daybreak," *i.e.*, he reported "I *shall be*," etc.; (3) as an equivalent of the subjunctive, to imply or express a condition, as in "I *should be* the first to welcome him," *i.e.*, provided that he were here, or in "if he *should come*, I *should* not *deign* to notice him"; (4) as an equivalent of the subjunctive, in subordinate clauses, *e.g.*, "it is queer that he *should go*." Uses (3) and (4) are much the same in force, and closely akin to them is the curious use of *should* in "whom *should* I see but Henry."

Though *should* is a past tense, it will be noticed that it does not refer to past time except when used with the perfect infinitive, *e.g.*, "I *should have gone*." The first use (1) is that most appropriate to the root-meaning of the verb, which expresses obligation.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences distinguish from each other (1) indicative verb-phrases denoting obligation, (2) indicative verb-phrases representing the future, and (3) verb-phrases expressing or implying a condition, and equivalent to the subjunctive.

¹ The distinction between *should* and *would* in subordinate clauses referring to the future is identical with that between *shall* and *will*. See § 107, note 2.

1. *If anything should happen, I should never forgive myself. 2. What should I do under such circumstances! 3. He asked his father what he should do under such circumstances. 4. He was afraid that he should be punished. 5. Why should you suspect me? 6. I should indeed be surprised. 7. I should think so. 8. It is not strange that it should have been attributed to inspiration. 9. Art thou he that should come? 10. He knew who should betray him.

111. *Would*. — Verb-phrases formed by *would* and an infinitive may be used in four ways: (1) to denote determination or habitual action, as in “however, he *would* do nothing of the sort”; (2) to represent the future tense in a subordinate clause, as in “the lieutenant reported that the infantry *would* march at once,” *i.e.*, he reported, “the infantry *will* march at once”; (3) as an equivalent of the subjunctive, to imply or express a condition, as in (a) “if he *would* only come, his friends *would* welcome him”; and (4) as an equivalent of the subjunctive, to express a wish, and in subordinate clauses, *e.g.*, “*would* that he were here,” “I hoped that he *would* come.” In (3) the first *would* implies a condition; the second *would* expresses a condition.¹

¹ The difference between *should* and *would* in conditions may be expressed as follows: (1) in *if* clauses, *would* denotes inclination, *should* a vague futurity; (2) in the conclusion, the same holds good of the first person. In the second and third persons *would* only is used; *should* would denote not condition but obligation. The following sentences are illustrative: (1) “if I *should* go, he *would* follow,” “if I *would* consent, he *would* agree”; (2) “I *would* not believe him,” *i.e.*, my inclination would be not to believe him; “I *should* not believe him,” *i.e.*, I should actually, whatever my inclinations were, not believe him.

Would does not refer to past time except when used with the perfect infinitive, e.g., "I *would have done so*, if it had been possible."

EXERCISE

Distinguish indicative verb-phrases (1) indicating habitual action or determination, or (2) standing for the future tense, from (3) those expressing or implying a condition and equivalent to the subjunctive.

1. At such times he would merely smile without replying.
2. If you were to ask me, I would not tell you.
3. He had no idea that they would let him go.
4. Under no circumstances would they consent.
5. The soldiers would not believe that their officers would betray them.

112. *Might*. — Verb-phrases composed of *might* and the infinitive follow closely the uses of *may* (§ 108). They denote: (1) *permission*, in past time, as in "I asked if I *might not go*"; (2) *possibility*, as in "his title *might be disputed*";¹ (3) in slightly formal language, they express *uncertainty*, in past time, with respect to the occurrence of a future event, as in "I hoped that he *might arrive* safely." Here the verb-phrase is equivalent to a subjunctive.

113. *Could*. — Verb-phrases formed by *could* and an infinitive are used to denote ability or possibility (see *can*, § 109), with an implied condition, as in "I *could go*," i.e., if I wanted to. *Could* may also be used in a conditional clause, e.g., "if he *could* see me

¹ The distinction between *might* and *could* is analogous to that between *may* and *can*. See § 109, note 1.

now, I should be happy," where *could* implies that the condition cannot be fulfilled (§ 178). In both uses the verb-phrase is equivalent to a subjunctive.

EXERCISE

I. Of the verb-phrases introduced by *might* distinguish (1) those indicating permission or (2) possibility, from (3) those that express uncertainty and are equivalent to the subjunctive.

1. They feared that he might have been carried off by the gypsies. 2. Fearing that he might discover the plot, I sent him away. 3. He might still do so. 4. He humbly petitioned that he might go.

II. Of the verb-phrases introduced by *could* distinguish (1) those indicating ability or possibility from (2) those expressing or implying a condition and equivalent to the subjunctive.

1. If I could only see him again! 2. I could weep for shame. 3. I could not believe my eyes. 4. I could be happy, if I could believe him.

114. Verbals. — The term verbal is applied to infinitives and participles, to distinguish them from the other parts of the verb, which have the power of asserting or stating. As we have seen, the infinitive is a verb-noun, the participle a verb-adjective. The infinitive is of two kinds, simple and participial. The simple infinitive has the form of the root of the verb, *i.e.*, that part which remains when all the inflectional endings are removed, *e.g.*, *love*. Sometimes it is preceded by the preposition *to*, which is called the sign

of the infinitive. The participial infinitive is identical in form with the participle, which ends in *ing*. Verbals may be active or passive in voice and present or perfect in tense. As the infinitive is practically a noun and the participle an adjective, neither can be expected to indicate tense accurately. In "*I expected to go*," and in "*seeing this, I rushed out*," for instance, the so-called present infinitive and present participle are used with verbs in the past tense. Indeed, a present verbal merely indicates an incomplete, and a perfect a complete action, without respect to time.

115. To with the Infinitive. — In Old English the simple infinitive was used in the dative case, preceded by the preposition *to*, generally to indicate purpose; and it has gradually come about that the infinitive with *to* is much more common than that without it. *To* is, however, not found after the auxiliary verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *do*, after the verb-phrases *had better*, *had rather*, and in other miscellaneous instances.¹

116. The Infinitive as the Subject. — As a noun, the infinitive, whether simple or participial, may be used as the subject of a verb or as a predicate nominative after *be* or similar verbs (§ 90), e.g., "*to sleep soundly is a great delight*," "*sleeping does more*

¹ "*For to do so and so*" is a survival in vulgar or dialectic English of an old usage, now obsolete in literary English, e.g., "and all countries came into Egypt to Joseph *for to buy* corn." — *Genesis* xli. 57. It indicates purpose. *For* intensifies *to*, and may be regarded as forming a part of the sign of the infinitive.

than medicine," "*to have slept* well was the foundation of his day's work," "*having slept* well meant a great deal to him," "all I care for is *to sleep* well." *It* may serve as the grammatical subject of the verb (compare § 66), when the logical subject is an infinitive, *e.g.*, "*it is good to sleep*," *i.e.*, *to sleep* is good. It should be noticed that frequently not the infinitive, but an infinitive-phrase is the subject of the verb, as in "*seeing the truth* is the first step."

117. The Infinitive as the Object of a Verb. — The infinitive may also be used as the object of a verb, *e.g.*, "I hate *to travel*," "I hate *travelling*," "I hope *to have finished* my work by Saturday," "I regret *having spoken* so frankly." Historically, this is the construction of simple infinitives with the auxiliary verbs; *e.g.*, in "*I will sleep*," *sleep* is the direct object of the verb *will*, meaning "I am determined or inclined."

118. The Infinitive after a Preposition. — The infinitive may also be in the objective case after a preposition, *e.g.*, "I am tired *of waiting*," "I was angry *at being slighted*," "I was *about to go*," "I was *about going* when the message came."

119. The Complementary Infinitive. — The simple infinitive may also be used, in a variety of idiomatic or peculiar constructions, to fill out or complete the meaning of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, *e.g.*, (a) "I was fool enough *to believe* him," (b) "he was too wise *to answer*," (c) "I have much *to do*," (d) "come *to see* me," (e) "house *to let*." In some

cases falling under this head the infinitive denotes purpose, as in the original construction of *to* with the dative form of the infinitive. See examples (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*). In most other cases it is equivalent to an adverbial objective or objective of specification (§§ 58 and 134), *e.g.*, "I was a fool to go," that is, I was a fool in respect to going.

120. The Possessive with the Infinitive. — As a noun, the participial infinitive may have attached to it a noun or pronoun in the possessive case, *e.g.*, "I was surprised at *John's* being absent," "I have no faith in *his* keeping his promise." (Compare page 144, note 1.)

121. The Object of the Infinitive. — As the infinitive has some of the functions of the verb, as well as those of the noun, it may take an object, *e.g.*, "I am afraid of his seeing *me*," "to believe *him* one must have a good deal of faith."

122. The Subject of the Infinitive. — In such constructions as "I believed *him* to be honest," "I ordered *it* to be sent home," "I saw *John* take the train," *him*, *it*, and *John* are obviously in the objective case. Nouns and pronouns in such constructions are, however, usually spoken of as being the subjects of the accompanying infinitives, for the instances given are equivalent to "I believed that *he was honest*," "I ordered that *it should be sent home*," "I saw that *John took the train*," where the two pronouns and the noun are the subjects of the verbs. It should be noticed that *to be* thus takes after it, not a predicate-

nominative, but a predicate-objective, *e.g.*, "I did not believe *it* to be *him*." In such expressions as "it is proper for him to do so," *to do* is the logical subject of *is*. *Him* is objective, with *for*; not the subject of *to do*.

EXERCISE

[In parsing an infinitive we should state (1) whether it is simple or participial, and (2) what its construction is, *i.e.*, nominative or objective, with the reason. If it has a subject, that fact should also be stated.]

Parse the infinitives in the following sentences and point out their objects, when such exist.

1. It is best to understand the whole matter before acting.
2. It is wiser for us to make the attempt alone.
3. I dare say that you are right.
4. You need not be afraid.
5. I prefer to walk.
6. I will not have you question me.
7. Tell him to look to it.
8. Didn't you hear me say so?
9. I knew him to be a fraud.
10. It is pleasant to see one's name in print.
11. To be good is to be happy.
12. I do not seem to understand you.
13. I swore never to reveal the hiding place.
14. I am sorry to contradict you.
15. I begin to understand you.
16. I should hate to have everybody know it.
17. Let me go; I have not long to live.
18. What is to be done?
19. He was born to command.
20. Be sure to come.
21. He had the presumption to refuse my request.
22. I prefer returning.
23. I remember walking over that same path.
24. Will treating people in that fashion do any good?
25. I am not in favor of keeping it.
26. I don't wonder at people's admiring him.
27. In consequence of its being a holiday, we made additional preparations.

123. Words Participial only in Form. — Many words participial in form have no participial force and must be classed as pure adjectives, *e.g.*, "a *barefooted* boy,"

"a *forlorn* hope," "a *cunning* trick," "a *drunken* man."¹ Even in "an *interesting* story," "a *charming* woman," it is doubtful whether the italicized words retain enough of the force of the verbs *interest* and *charm* to make it necessary for us to classify them as participles rather than as adjectives.

124. Attributive Participles. — Participles may be used attributively (§ 78), still retaining their verbal force, *e.g.*, "an *inviting* sight," "a *loving* child," "a *lost* opportunity." In this sense a participle is equivalent to a relative clause, *e.g.*, a sight that invites, a child who loves, an opportunity that is lost.

125. Predicate Participles. — Participles may, as we have seen, be used in a predicate position (§ 78), in combination with the verb *be*, to form the passive voice (§ 102) and progressive verb-phrases (§ 105), *e.g.*, "I *am loved*," "I *am loving*."² They may also be used in an adverbial relation, modifying a verb, as

¹ Participles of some verbs have two forms, one of which preserves the original ending in *(e)n*, *e.g.*, *drunk*, *drunken*; *rotted*, *rotten*. When this is the case, the form in *(e)n* is generally used only as an adjective.

² Such expressions as "the house *is building*," common in eighteenth century literature and not yet obsolete, are equivalent to the progressive form of the passive, *e.g.*, "the house *is being built*," and were the regular forms before the participle *being* and the resulting form of the progressive passive came into use. The form in *ing*, in "the house *is building*," is historically, however, not the participle, but the participial infinitive; for the expression originally was "the house *is in building*," which was weakened to *a-building* and then to *building*. *A* in "he has gone *a-fishing*" is then a weakened form of the preposition, and *fishing* is the participial infinitive.

in "he came *rushing* down the hill," where *rushing* does not describe *he* so much as it indicates the way in which the action was performed. Participles may also be used in the predicate position with the object of a verb, *e.g.*, "I saw him *climbing* the hill." Here *climbing* is a genuine verb-adjective (§ 114) in that it describes *him* as well as represents an action.¹

126. Appositive Participles. — The chief use of the participle, however, is what may be loosely called apposition (§ 78), *i.e.*, the construction in which the participle stands beside the word it limits without being in an attributive or predicate relation to it, *e.g.*, "*seeing* the sunshine, I threw open the window," "he urged on his men, already *assured* of victory."

127. Absolute Participles. — Participles are also used in what may be called an absolute construction,² that is, a construction that has no connection with the rest of the sentence, — a parenthetical expression, so to speak, which could be omitted without altering

¹ The close resemblance should be noticed between (a) "I saw *him climbing*," (b) "I saw *his climbing*," (c) "I saw him *climb*," and the colloquial expressions (d) "I saw him *a-climbing* the hill," and (e) "*a-climbing* of the hill." In (a) the word ending in *ing* is a participle; in (b), a noun or a participial infinitive; in (c), the simple infinitive; and in (d) and (e) the participial infinitive. After a preposition the participle cannot properly be used, *e.g.*, we do not say, "I see no use in *him doing* it," but "I see no use in *his doing* (participial infinitive) it." In other words, the noun or pronoun must be in the possessive, not the objective. The objective is, however, sometimes found now in literary English in such expressions, and it was still more common in the English of several generations ago, *e.g.*, "without a *shilling being spent* among them," "he insisted on the *match being deferred*." •

² Compare the Latin ablative absolute.

the relation that any other parts of the sentence might bear to each other: *e.g.*, "this *done* and our work *completed*, we returned quietly home;" "the day *being* dark and rainy, we gave up the attempt."¹

EXERCISE

[In parsing a participle, state (1) its tense and mood, (2) from what verb it is formed, (3) whether its use is attributive, predicate, oppositive, or absolute, and (4) what noun (or equivalent of a noun) it modifies.]

Parse the participles in the following sentences:

1. He had a harsh, grating voice. 2. Here are letters announcing his return. 3. While talking,² he managed to secrete the letter. 4. I saw the storm approaching. 5. The rain came pouring down in torrents. 6. There was nothing striking about him. 7. She played a soothing melody, and then, sighing, arose from the instrument. 8. Being occupied with important matters, he had no leisure to see us. 9. The unbelieving, unsympathetic man would do nothing to relieve the distress of the poor and suffering. 10. Our guest offering his assistance, he was accepted among the number. 11. It being already dark, we halted for the night.

128. Classification of Words in *ing*. — Words in *ing* are (1) participial infinitives, (2) participles, (3) adjectives, or nouns.³ A few prepositions also end in *ing*,

¹ The noun or pronoun accompanying the participle we class as a nominative absolute (§ 55). Historically it is a dative, and we occasionally find constructions, mostly in literature previous to that of this century, in which the dative or objective case is preserved.

² Words necessary to the completeness of the grammatical construction must be supplied.

³ *E.g.*, "these *sayings* have been long preserved." On the other hand, "in the *saying* of prayers and *tolling* of bells," the italicized words have something of the force of verbs, and may be classed as participial infinitives.

e.g., excepting, during, notwithstanding. Whenever a word in *ing* has not the force of a verb or a preposition, it should be classed either as an adjective or as a noun.

EXERCISE

Parse the words ending in *ing*.

1. I am going fishing. 2. It was a charming sight. 3. Talking of bears, here is a story for you. 4. Assuming what he says to be true, the policeman's testimony must still be accepted. 5. I found him reading. 6. He was annoyed at my going home so early. 7. Be still, sad heart, and cease repining. 8. His dying words were these. 9. I was awakened by the shouting of the men. 10. Grim forebodings filled my mind. 11. I am far from assenting to his proposition. 12. You hurt my feelings. 13. I have a feeling that you may be right. 14. Feeling sure that it is so does not make it so.

CHAPTER XIII

ADVERBS

129. USES OF ADVERBS. — **130.** KINDS OF ADVERBS. — **131.** DEMONSTRATIVE ADVERBS. — **132.** INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS AND RELATIVE ADVERBS. — **133.** THE ADVERBS *As*, *So*, *Than*, AND *The*. — **134.** THE ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE. — **135.** THE INTRODUCTORY ADVERB *There*. — **136.** THE FORM OF ADVERBS. — **137.** THE COMPARISON OF ADVERBS. — **138.** ADVERB-PHRASES AND RELATIVE ADVERB CLAUSES.

129. Uses of Adverbs. — We have seen how an adjective limits or modifies a noun by stating a quality or characteristic belonging to it. In a similar way adverbs are used to modify adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs, as in “a *terribly* hot day,” “he swam *out*,” “the work was *very* beautifully *done*.” Here the adverbs *terribly*, *out*, and *very* modify the meaning of the adjective *hot*, the verb *swam*, and the adverb *beautifully*, by showing the extent to which the day was hot, the direction in which he swam, and the degree to which the work was beautifully done.¹ Adverbs may also modify preposi-

¹ It is sometimes said that adverbs modify nouns, as in “he was *fully* master of the situation.” But here *fully* may properly be taken as limiting *was*, showing the degree to which the assertion is true. In “the *above* instance,” *above* is an adjective, not an adverb. “The instance *above*” is a contracted expression for “the instance given above.” Such phrases as “the *then* governor,” “an *almost* certainty” are usually regarded as incorrect. If they are accepted, the italicized words are to be regarded as adjectives.

tions, as in "he read *straight through* the letter," where *straight* has logically a closer connection with *through* than with *read*. They may also modify phrases or groups of words, as in "thoroughly *ill at ease*," or even whole clauses or sentences (§ 130, 6).

130. Kinds of Adverbs.—Adverbs may indicate (1) manner, as *wildly, sweetly, likewise, thus, so*;¹ (2) place or direction, as *here, there, before, behind, hither*;² (3) time, as *soon, ever, never*; (4) number, quantity, or degree, as *twice, much, quite*. Adverbs may also be (5) interrogative,³ as *why, wherefore, how, whence*; or they may be (6) general, *i.e.*, of such a force that they affect the character of the statement as a whole, or indicate its relation to other statements. Of this sort are the affirmative adverbs *perhaps, indeed, certainly*, and the causal adverbs *hence, therefore*.⁴ *E.g.*, "*indeed*, the facts point to a different conclusion," "*certainly* you are in the wrong,"⁵ "the facts may, *therefore*, be regarded as

¹ *So* is sometimes equivalent to a predicate adjective or nominative, as in "I feel well and I look *so* (*i.e.*, well)," "I told you *so*."

² *Hither* and *thither*, when they refer to places, indicate motion toward a place; *hence* and *thence*, motion from a place; *e.g.*, "come *hither*," "go *thither* again," "get thee *hence*," "in a twelvemonth they departed *thence*." *Cf. whether* and *whence*. But all these words are nearly obsolete in ordinary writing and conversation. The unnecessary forms *from hence, from thence, from whence*, are also sometimes found, but are considered to be of doubtful correctness.

³ See also § 132.

⁴ Some authorities call these conjunctions.

⁵ Compare with "you are certainly wrong," where *certainly* modifies *are*.

substantiated." The responsive words *yes* and *no* are also usually classed as adverbs, though in reality they are condensed sentences.

EXERCISE

[In parsing an adverb it is necessary only to state what it modifies, except under circumstances which will be explained later.]

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences:—

1. He still stood there, moving his fingers uneasily.
2. Strangely Marner's face and figure shrank.
3. The frost pressed cruelly on the grass.
4. Somehow I do not understand you.
5. First I must attend to the horses.
6. Forthwith he departed.
7. Sometimes I am lonely.
8. Henceforth I will have naught to do with you.
9. You may tell me, though, what you meant by steering eastward.
10. Stand from under.
11. How could it be otherwise [*i.e.*, in any other way]?
12. He ran hither and thither.
13. It was then¹ that I recognized the danger.
14. What, then, will you do?
15. Do you agree or not?²
16. I could go no further.
17. His second thought was no less rash.
18. He lives over yonder.
19. It cut clear through the flesh.
20. I can find him nowhere.
21. He must be somewhere near.
22. Here were kept the village records.
23. I must find some one else.
24. He must be somewhere else.
25. It is, indeed, hard to know the false from the true.
26. What you say, therefore, will not be used against you.
27. Nowadays we must be on our guard.
28. Nearly all his time was probably spent in idleness.
29. Are you quite rested? Yes, quite.
30. I was altogether at a loss.
31. He is in precisely the same circumstances.
32. The man in front is the one I mean.
33. We were in the car behind.
34. In no country perhaps in the world is law so general a study.
35. Of course disputes, often, too, very bitter disputes, and much ill blood, will arise.
36. Whereabouts do you live?
37. How do you know?

¹ Distinguish between the force of *then* in 13 and 14.

² Certain words are understood.

38. I asked you why you thought so. 39. A reader seldom peruses a book with pleasure till he knows whether the writer be a man or a woman.

131. Demonstrative Adverbs. — The pupil will be aided in understanding the following sections by observing that certain adverbs have a demonstrative force, *e.g.*, *hither*, *thither*, *here*, *there*, *hence*, *thence*, *then*, *thus*. They are derived from the old English pronouns, and may be regarded as expressing adverbially the same ideas as *this* and *that*. Compare “I was *here*, and he was *there*” with “I believe *this*, and he believes *that*.”

132. Interrogative Adverbs and Relative Adverbs. — *Whether*, *whethersover*, *whence*, *wherefore*, *why*, and *how*, are interrogative adverbs, and are used in both direct and indirect questions, *e.g.*, “*how* do you do?” “I cannot understand *how* you endure so much.” *Where* and *when*, and their compounds, are sometimes interrogative adverbs, *e.g.*, “*where* are you going?” “I did not ask *when* he went.” In such constructions, however, as “I left him *where* he lay,” “I saw him *when* I arrived,” they may be classed either as conjunctions (§ 148) or as relative adverbs. The close analogy between these constructions and those in which relative pronouns are employed, leads us to classify them as relative adverbs. A demonstrative adverb sometimes serves as the antecedent of a relative adverb, *e.g.*, “I left him lying *there* where he fell.”

133. The Adverbs *As*, *So*, *Than*, and *The*. — After the adjective *such*, *as* is a relative pronoun (§ 73). *As*

(originally, *al-so*, "quite so") may also be a relative adverb, having as its antecedent a demonstrative adverb *as*; *e.g.*, "he is *as* tall *as* I am," *i.e.*, he is tall in that degree in which I am tall. Sometimes the antecedent of the relative adverb *as* is the demonstrative adverb *so*, *e.g.*, "*as* two is to four, *so* is four to eight," *i.e.*, in the degree in which two is to four, in that degree four is to eight. Sometimes the antecedent *so* is omitted, *e.g.*, "I respect him [*so*] *as* [I respect] a father." Sometimes the antecedent *as* or *so* is expressed and the relative *as* omitted, *e.g.*, "he is *as* tall but not *so* heavy [*as* some one else is]."

*Than*¹ (akin in origin to the demonstrative pronoun *that*) is a relative adverb, the old meaning of which was "at which time" or "when." "I am taller *than* he is," thus originally meant, "when he is tall, I am taller."

The, in such constructions as "*the* more, *the* better," is not the article, but a weakened form of "that." Just as *that* is both a relative and a demonstrative pronoun, so *the* is both a relative and a demonstrative adjective. "The more, the better" thus means, "to the degree in which it is more, to that degree it is better."

¹ The subordinate clause introduced by *than* is frequently abbreviated to a single word, *e.g.*, "he is taller than I [am]," "you treated him better than [you did] me." In such cases there has always been a tendency to treat *than* as a preposition followed by the objective case, and to say "he is taller than *me*." Grammarians and rhetoricians insist that this construction is incorrect, and it is now largely confined to colloquial or vulgar English, except in the almost obsolete expression *than whom*, which has been accepted, in spite of logic, as correct.

134. The Adverbial Objective. — As we have already explained, the objective case (§ 58, 5) is frequently used with an adverbial force, as in “he struck him many *times*,” “I don’t care a *snap*,” “it is only *skin* deep,” “he had scarcely walked a *rod*.” *That*, in the colloquial or vulgar “I wouldn’t go *that* far,” is in the same construction. The adverbial objective of an indefinite or adjective pronoun (§§ 76, 77) comes very close to being an adverb, *e.g.*, “it is *all* over with me.” Certain adverbs (*needs, unawares*, etc.) have their origin in a similar use of the possessive case.

135. The Introductory Adverb *There*. — *There* is often used as an introductory adverb, as in “*there* was a man in our town.” Here *man* is properly the subject of *was*. Its natural place in the sentence is taken by *there*. Compare the use of *it* as the grammatical, as distinguished from the logical subject (§ 66, 1).

EXERCISE

[Parse the adverbs. Interrogative and relative adverbs do not limit particular words. Interrogative adverbs introduce questions; relative adverbs introduce dependent clauses. In parsing them it is necessary only to state (1) that they are interrogative or relative adverbs, and (2) what questions (direct or indirect) or what clauses they introduce. If a relative adverb has an antecedent expressed or clearly understood, that fact should also be stated.]

Parse the adverbs in the following sentences: —

1. Go where duty calls you. 2. The more I hear about it, the less I like it. 3. The branches swayed gently hither and thither.

4. I have seen enough.¹ 5. This once I will forgive you.
 6. Several times before I have forgotten it. 7. He is going home. 8. I can stand it no longer. 9. I am all tired out. 10. He is not much hurt. 11. I am not quite free yet. 12. When I caught sight of him, he was greatly perplexed. 13. I don't know how I shall bring it about. 14. Where there is mystery, there is danger. 15. Let there² be light. 16. I like him none the less for that. 17. I am not so sure about it. 18. Thus he spoke. 19. As a citizen, he has his rights.³ 20. We treated him as a rival. 21. Run as fast as [is] possible. 22. Be so good as to help me.⁴ 23. I am not so strong as you. 24. So far as I can see, you are safe. 25. As he had saved the state in time of war, so now he preserved it in time of peace. 26. He looked as [he would have looked] if he had seen better days. 27. As yet⁵ I have been successful. 28. I had had better fortune than you. 29. He hates no one more than me. 30. There is nothing better than this. 31. Rather than he should fail, I would go myself to his aid. 32. It was no other than he. 33. He is no better; at least I cannot see that he is any better. 34. It serves him right. 35. Hand in hand, they came up the path. 36. Wherein does the difference lie? 37. Where does this road lead to?⁶ 38. Somehow or other [how] I am not contented. 39. It will be much the worse for you. 40. I should like some more pudding. 41. I know whereof I speak.⁷ 42. He coughed while he was speaking.

136. The Form of Adverbs. — Many adverbs end in *ly*, that is, “like.” Frequently, however, it is only

¹ See § 77.

² Compare with “let *it* be done.” Parse *it*.

³ That is, in the degree in which he is a citizen, in that degree he has rights. Here *as* is a relative adverb introducing the noun *citizen*, which may be parsed as predicate nominative after *is* understood.

⁴ That is, be so good as you would be good in the point of helping me.

⁵ That is, in so far as past time is concerned.

⁶ A colloquial redundancy.

⁷ How would the sentence read if a relative pronoun were used?

by its use that we can distinguish between an adverb and an adjective, preposition, or conjunction. *E.g.*, "he rode *fast*" (adverb), "a *fast* (adjective) horse," "he rode *in*" (adverb), "he sat *in* the wagon" (preposition).¹ When an adverb has two forms, *e.g.*, *slow*, *slowly*, *quick*, *quickly*, *scarce*, *scarcely*, *clear*, *clearly*, the shorter form is sometimes most used colloquially (*e.g.*, "come *quick*," "go *slow*," "lie *low*"), sometimes confined to poetry or poetic prose (*e.g.*, "*scarce* heard in the distance, the notes rang *clear*, though faint"). The termination *ly* is occasionally an adjective ending also; *e.g.*, *homely*, *jolly*, *kindly*.

137. The Comparison of Adverbs.—Many adverbs are capable of comparison (§ 82), which is almost invariably denoted by *more* (*less*) and *most* (*least*). A few monosyllabic adverbs, particularly those referred to in the preceding section as having at times the force of adjectives, are compared also by inflection; *e.g.*, *quicker* and *more quickly*. We may say "come *quicker*" or "come *more quickly*." The former usage is the more colloquial.

The following adverbs are compared irregularly: *far*, *farther* (*further*), *farthest* (*furthest*); *ill* (*badly*), *worse*, *worst*; *late*, *later*, *latest* (*last*); *little*, *less*, *least*; *much*, *more*, *most*; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* (*next*); *well*, *better*, *best*. The comparative adverb *rather* comes from the obsolete positive *rathe* ("early"). It has no superlative.

¹ For words which are now adverbs, now conjunctions, see § 151.

138. Adverb-Phrases. — Our language is rich in adverb-phrases, such as *at once*, *at all*, *in vain*, *of old*, *one by one*. These phrases generally consist of a preposition together with an adjective, adverb, or noun, or are based on an adverbial objective. They are frequently idiomatic in character and hard to analyze. Adverb-clauses are introduced by relative adverbs or conjunctions. Those introduced by conjunctions we shall examine later (§ 186). All clauses introduced by relative adverbs are adverb-clauses, with the exception of some which are introduced by *where*. *Where* clauses may be (1) noun-clauses, *e.g.*, “I will tell you *where I stand*” (*cf.* I will tell you something); (2) adjective-clauses, *e.g.*, “the house *where I lived* is torn down” (*cf.* the house *in which* I lived); or (3) adverb-clauses, *e.g.*, “*where you go*, I will go” (*cf.* I will go there).

EXERCISE

I. Parse the adverbs in the following sentences. If an adverb is in the comparative or superlative degree, the fact should be stated.

1. Come as quick as you can. 2. Speak louder. 3. The slower you work, the longer it will take. 4. His journeys abroad have been numerous. 5. May all the blessings of heaven above be on you. 6. The lark sang shrill, the cock he crew. 7. I scarce could trust my eyes. 8. High o'er my head, with threatening hand, the spectre shook his naked brand. 9. The moon shone bright¹ and cold.¹ 10. Still¹ on the spot Lord Marmion stayed. 11. He stood next to me. 12. He came last. 13. I can go no further. 14. He is worse to-day. 15. I did not know he was so ill.

¹ Adjective or adverb?

II. In the following sentences, point out the clauses introduced by relative pronouns, and state whether they have the force of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

1. And when the sunshine grew strong and lasting, so that the buttercups were thick in the meadows, Silas might be seen in the sunny midday, or in the late afternoon when the shadows were lengthening under the hedgerows, strolling out with uncovered head to carry Eppie beyond the Stone Pits to where the flowers grew, till they reached some favorite bank where he could sit down, while Eppie toddled to pluck the flowers, and made remarks to the winged things that murmured happily above the bright petals. 2. Even people whose lives have been made various by learning sometimes find it hard to keep a fast hold on their habitual views of life, on their faith in the Invisible, — nay, on the sense that their past joys and sorrows are a real experience, when they are suddenly transported to a new land, where the beings around them know nothing of their history, and share none of their ideas; where their mother Earth shows another lap, and human life has other forms than those on which their souls have been nourished. 3. But even their experience may hardly enable them thoroughly to imagine what was the effect on a simple weaver like Silas Marner, when he left his own country and people and came to settle in Raveloe. 4. Nothing could be more unlike his native town, set within sight of the widespread hillsides, than this low, wooded region, where he felt hidden even from the heavens by the screening trees and hedgerows. 5. There was nothing here, when he rose in the deep morning quiet and looked out on the dewy brambles and rank tufted grass, that seemed to have any relation with that life centering in Lantern Yard, which had once been to him the altar place of high dispensations.

CHAPTER XIV

PREPOSITIONS

139. USES OF PREPOSITIONS. — **140.** PREPOSITION-PHRASES. — **141.** PREPOSITIONS PECULIAR IN FORM OR USE. — **142.** CLOSE RELATION BETWEEN PREPOSITIONS AND ADVERBS. — **143.** VARIOUS USES OF PREPOSITIONS. — **144.** PREPOSITIONAL ADJECTIVE-PHRASES. — **145.** PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB-PHRASES.

139. Uses of Prepositions. — A preposition is a connecting word that indicates a relation between a noun or pronoun and a word of some other sort. A noun or pronoun is thus made to limit or modify this word in a way indicated by the preposition. Thus, in "he lived in hopes," *hopes* is connected with *lived* by the preposition *in*, which here denotes that the relation is one of manner (§ 130). (For the adverbial and adjectival force of limitation brought about in this way, see §§ 144, 145.) The connection indicated by a preposition may be with a noun, as in "a *captain* in the artillery"; a pronoun, as in "*she* of the golden locks"; an adjective, as in "*capable* of anything"; or, more rarely, an adverb, as in "*precisely* on time."

A preposition is regularly followed by a noun ("conquered by the *sword*") or a pronoun ("beloved by *me*"). But in certain idiomatic adverb-phrases (§ 138), a preposition may be followed by words that in other connections would be classed as adjectives

(*e.g.*, “on *high*”); as adverbs (“at *once*”); or even prepositions (“stand from *under*”). These groups of words are called prepositional adverb-phrases, *i.e.*, phrases which have the force of an adverb, and are formed by a preposition and its object.

A preposition may also have as its object a prepositional noun-phrase, *i.e.*, a phrase of similar formation which has the force of a noun, *e.g.*, “they drove the enemy from *behind the breastworks*.” Here the object of *from* is *behind the breastworks*, which is equivalent to a noun, but is a phrase formed by a preposition and its object.

140. Preposition-Phrases. — Certain groups of words have the force of prepositions, *e.g.*, *in place of*, *as to*, *with regard to*, *out of*, *on board*.¹

141. Prepositions Peculiar in Form or Use. — Several words in *ing* are prepositions, *e.g.*, *saving*, *during*, *notwithstanding*. *But* in the sense of *save* or *except* is usually regarded as a preposition, *e.g.*, “there is no one here but me.” (Compare § 149.) The words *like*, *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*, *next*, *nigh*, in such constructions as “much *like* him,” “*near* me,” are hard to classify. Historically they are adjectives, taking after them the dative case, and they may still be so classed. Their force, however, is precisely that of prepositions, and they could be classed as such, were it not for the anomaly that would be afforded by the comparative and superlative forms, which are appropriate for

¹ As in “*on board* a man-of-war.” Compare “*this side* the river.”

adjectives, but not for prepositions. It is perhaps best to call them prepositional adjectives, and to call the corresponding phrases *like unto*, *near to*, etc., preposition-phrases.

142. Close Relation between Prepositions and Adverbs.

— Prepositions originally indicated, in most instances, direction or situation, and are very closely akin to adverbs, as may be seen from the following illustrations: “he stood *by*,” “he stood *by* me”; “he stood *near*,” “he stood *near* me.” Compare also “rushed *in*,” “started *off*,” “well *off*,” “shut the door *to*,” with the corresponding prepositional uses of the same words.

EXERCISE

[In parsing prepositions, it is necessary only to state what words or groups of words they connect.]

I. Parse the prepositions in the exercises on page 156.

II. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences:

1. He turned eagerly to where he had seen her last. 2. I have no doubt of succeeding eventually. 3. There was nothing to do but submit. 4. I am tired of going a-fishing. 5. He had no objection, he said, except with regard to the rent. 6. I have hunted everywhere, from under the eaves to down cellar. 7. This is not a fit place to live in.¹ 8. I don't know what you are talking about. 9. The plan I have been thinking of is this. 10. That will give you something to think about. 11. But, passing such degression o'er, suffice it that their route was laid across the furzy hills of Braid.

¹ *To live* is here a complementary infinitive, limiting *place*. *In* may be treated as a part of the verb-phrase *live in*. It is then rather an adverb than a preposition.

143. Various Uses of Prepositions. — Our language is remarkable for the many different forces which we give to the same preposition. *Of*, for example, may be used in the following different ways: (1) in forming a phrase equivalent to the possessive, *e.g.*, “the son of my brother”; (2) with a partitive meaning, “many of the people”; (3) to specify or refer, “he boasted of his crimes”; (4) to compose an adjective-phrase, “a crown of gold”; (5) to denote apposition, “the city of New York”; (6) to denote time, “of an evening”; (7) to express agency, “beloved of all”; (8) to express origin, “born of poor but honest parents”; (9) to express cause, “lay sick of a fever”; (10) as equivalent to *from* in various ways, “to rid him of trouble.” A study of these different uses would be valuable and interesting, but this is not the place for it. Here we are concerned largely with the classification of words and the changes of form that are made necessary by relations between words. Systematic study of the origin and extent of slight differences of meaning the pupil must postpone until he takes up historical grammar and rhetoric. He should, however, be on the alert to notice the various forces of prepositions, and to broaden and enrich his own diction by their use.

144. Prepositional Adjective-Phrases. — Prepositional phrases have sometimes the force of adjectives, *e.g.*, “a primrose *by the river's brim*”; “a gentleman *of France*”; “a friend *at court*”; that is, a

river's-brim primrose, a *French* gentleman, a *court* friend.

145. Prepositional Adverb-Phrases. — Prepositional phrases may also have the force of adverbs, *e.g.*, “he sat *by the river*,” “I will not speak *of France*,” “he is *at court*.”

EXERCISE

In the following passage point out the prepositional phrases. Are they adjective-phrases or adverb-phrases?

“In the days when the spinning wheels hummed busily in the farmhouses — and even great ladies, clothed in silk and thread lace, had their toy spinning wheels of polished oak — there might be seen in districts far away among the lanes, or deep in the bosom of the hills, certain pallid, undersized men, who, by the side of the brawny country folk, looked like the remnants of a disinherited race. The shepherd's dog barked fiercely when one of these alien-looking men appeared on the upland, dark against the early winter sunset; for what dog likes a figure bent under a heavy bag? and these pale men rarely stirred abroad without that mysterious burden. The shepherd himself, though he had good reason to believe that the bag held nothing but flaxen thread, or else the long rolls of strong linen spun from that thread, was not quite sure that this trade of weaving indispensable though it was, could be carried on entirely without the help of the Evil One. In that far-off time superstition clung easily round every person or thing that was at all unwonted, or even intermittent and occasional merely, like the visits of the peddler or the knife grinder. No one knew where wandering men had their homes or their origin; and how was a man to be explained unless you at least knew somebody who knew his father and mother? To the peasants of old times, the world outside their own direct experience was a region of vagueness and mystery: to their untravelled thought a state of wandering

was a conception as dim as the winter life of the swallows that came back with the spring; and even a settler, if he came from distant parts, hardly ever ceased to be viewed with a remnant of distrust, which would have prevented any surprise if a long course of inoffensive conduct on his part had ended in the commission of a crime; especially if he had any reputation for knowledge, or showed any skill in handicraft."

— GEORGE ELIOT *Silas Marner*.

CHAPTER XV

CONJUNCTIONS

146. USES OF CONJUNCTIONS.—**147.** COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.
—**148.** SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.—**149.** THE CONJUNCTIONS
But AND *That*.—**150.** *As*.—**151.** CLOSE RELATION BETWEEN CON-
JUNCTIONS, ADVERBS, AND PREPOSITIONS.—**152.** INTERJECTIONS.

146. Uses of Conjunctions. — Conjunctions are used (1) to connect statements, as in “do not go *until* you hear from me”; and (2) to connect words, phrases, and clauses, as in “bread *and* butter”; “sloops of war *and* ships of the line”; “that the troops might rest *and* that the people might rejoice with them, the victorious general ordered a halt.” Only a few conjunctions are used for the second purpose. They will be enumerated under coördinate conjunctions. It will be observed that this function of conjunctions, that of connecting words, resembles that of the preposition (§ 139). There is this difference, however, that, as we have seen, a preposition indicates that one word limits another word, whereas a conjunction puts both words on an equality, indicating only that they are to be considered together (*e.g.*, “hope *and* fear,” “fight *or* run.”).

147. Coördinate Conjunctions. — Conjunctions are of two kinds, coördinate and subordinate.

Coördinate conjunctions connect statements of the same order, that is, statements that are grammatically independent, *e.g.*, "I go, *but* I return"; "trust in God *and* keep your powder dry." They are also used to connect words, phrases, and clauses, as indicated in the preceding section. The simple coördinate conjunctions are *and*, *but*, and *or*. There are also certain coördinate conjunctions called correlative (that is, "having mutual relations"), which go in pairs, *e.g.*, *either*, *or*; *neither*, *nor*; *both*, *and*; *as well*, *as*; *not only*, *but* (*also*). The use of these correlative coördinate conjunctions will be seen from the following examples: "*either* death *or* liberty"; "*neither* angels *nor* principalities"; "*both* servant and master"; "*as well* the cowardly *as* the brave"; "*not only* men, *but also* women."

When two or more words are used together with a conjunctive force, they may be called a conjunction-phrase. Thus, *not only* and *but also* may be considered as correlative coördinate conjunction-phrases.

148. Subordinate Conjunctions. — Subordinate conjunctions are those that connect statements of different orders or values; that is, that connect an independent or principal statement with a clause that limits it. Here the conjunction indicates the kind of limitation which the dependent or subordinate clause exerts upon the principal clause. Thus, in "I did not see him *until* he crossed the brook," the

principal clause or statement is "I did not see him." The conjunction *until* introduces the subordinate clause, "he crossed the brook," and indicates that it limits the principal clause in point of time, just as if it were an adverb, *e.g.*, "I did not see him *then*, or *at that time*."

Subordinate conjunctions and conjunction-phrases may indicate (1) time, *e.g.*, *after*, *as*, *as long as*, *as soon as*, *before*, *ere*, *since*, *until*;¹ (2) cause, *because*, *for*,² *for that*, *since*, *whereas*; (3) condition, *except*, *if*, *provided*, *unless*, *without*; (4) concession, *albeit*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *though*; (5) purpose or result, *lest*, *in order that*, *so that*, *that*; (6) comparison, *as*, *than*.

EXERCISE

[In parsing a conjunction, it is necessary only to state whether it is coördinate or subordinate, and to mention the words or groups of words which it connects.]

Parse the conjunctions in the following passage :

"Now, however, no whit anticipating the oblivion which awaited their names and feats, the champions advanced through the lists,

¹ *When*, *whence*, *where*, *while*, which are frequently classed as subordinate conjunctions of time, have been classed in this volume as relative adverbs (§ 132).

² *For* is usually classed as a coördinate conjunction, and *because* as a subordinate conjunction. But it is difficult to see how they differ much in force in such a sentence as "he refused to answer the question *because (for)* he knew that if he did so he was lost." *For* seems to the present writer a coördinate conjunction only when it opens a sentence, *e.g.*, "He refused to answer the question, and indeed to respond to any inquiry whatsoever. *For* he knew that if he did so, he was lost." Here *for* connects two independent sentences and may properly be called coördinate.

restraining their fiery steeds, and compelling them to move slowly, while, at the same time, they exhibited their paces, together with the grace and dexterity of the riders. As the procession entered the lists, the sound of a wild Barbaric music was heard from behind the tents of the challengers, where the performers were concealed. It was of Eastern origin, having been brought from the Holy Land; and the mixture of the cymbals and bells seemed to bid welcome at once, and defiance, to the knights as they advanced. With the eyes of an immense concourse of spectators fixed upon them, the five knights advanced up the platform upon which the tents of the challengers stood, and there separating themselves, each touched slightly, and with the reverse of his lance, the shield of the antagonist to whom he wished to oppose himself. The lower orders of spectators in general—nay, many of the higher class, and it is even said several of the ladies, were rather disappointed at the champions choosing the arms of courtesy. For the same sort of persons who, in the present day, applaud most highly the deepest tragedies, were then interested in a tournament exactly in proportion to the danger incurred by the champions engaged."

—SCOTT: *Ivanhoe*.

149. The Conjunctions *But* and *That*.—The conjunctions *but* and *that* have certain peculiarities.

In "no one was there *but* I [was there]" *but* is certainly a conjunction, though this usage is not particularly common. "He feared no one *but* me" may, however, be interpreted as equivalent to (a) "he feared no one, but he feared me," or to (b) "he feared no one except me." The meaning is the same in both instances, but according to (a) *but* is a conjunction; according to (b) a preposition. (Compare § 141).

In such expressions as "it never rains *but* it pours," *but* is a subordinate conjunction, equivalent to *that not*.

That is frequently used to introduce a noun-clause, e.g., "I believe *that you were present*." Here "[that] you were present" is the direct object of "I believe," precisely as *words* is in "I believe your *words*." In Shaksperian and older English this construction was very commonly employed, e.g., "after that the king had burned the roll"; "till that the nobles have of their puissance made a little taste." Here the prepositions *after* and *till* take as objects the noun-clauses introduced by *that*. In more modern English this usage has greatly decreased, but it is preserved in *notwithstanding that*, *in that*, *save that*, and a few similar phrases. • As a rule, we now say, "*after* the king had burnt the roll," "*till* the nobles," etc., classing *after* and *till* as conjunctions, not as prepositions. Indeed, we often omit *that* when it is the only conjunctive word, e.g., "I believe [that] you were there," "I say [that] you are not telling the truth." After the verb *doubt*, when accompanied by a negative, a noun-clause may be introduced by *that*, *but that*, sometimes *but*, and, less correctly, *but what*, e.g., "I do not doubt *that* [*but that, but, or but what*] he will come." All these connecting words are to be parsed in such constructions as subordinate conjunctions or conjunction-phrases.

In such expressions as "it was then *that* I saw him," *that* has the force of *when*.

150. As. — Like all relative adverbs, *as* serves the purpose of a conjunction in introducing a dependent

clause, and shows,* in some uses, no traces of a relative force. *As* may be classified as a conjunction when it expresses cause or reason, or time, *e.g.*, "*as* you are already here, we can begin"; "*as* I was walking down the street." *As if* should be parsed as a conjunction-phrase. The ellipsis is here somewhat complicated, *e.g.*, "he looks *as if* he would eat me up," *i.e.*, "he looks *as* [he might look] *if* he would (wanted to) eat me up." *As though* is sometimes used idiomatically in the same sense, though here it is usually impossible to supply the ellipsis. *As*, too, is rarely used in verse with the force of *as if*. *Like* is often vulgarly used with the force of *as*, *e.g.*, "he can't run *like* I can." For the proper use of *like* in this connection, as a preposition, see § 141.

151. Close Relation between Conjunctions, Adverbs, and Prepositions. — Many words, originally adverbs or prepositions, have come to be used as conjunctions, *e.g.*, *after*, *before*, *for*, *until*.

EXERCISE

[In parsing a conjunction, state (1) whether it is coördinate or subordinate, and (2) what it connects. If it is correlative, the fact should also be stated.]

I. Parse the adverbs and conjunctions in the following sentences :

1. And what, he asked a plainly dressed citizen, is the cause of this assembly? 2. He, and he alone, has done all this. 3. He sold wine and kept a table d'hôte; occasionally also let bedrooms to travellers. 4. Besides, he was a shrewd philosopher. 5. Fur-

ther — and this is a point to be insisted on — his style in poetry and prose is subject to the same law. 6. Now travel, and foreign travel more particularly, restores to us in a great degree what we have lost. 7. Volatile he was, wild and somewhat rough, both in appearance and in speech. 8. It will be my endeavor to relate the history of the people as well as the history of the government. 9. Men eminent alike in peace and war. 10. What with chagrin and confinement, what with bad diet, Wilhelmina sees herself reduced to a skeleton. 11. Great men are not always wise; neither do the aged understand judgment. 12. My hair is gray, but not with years, nor grew it white in a single night. 13. Neither a borrower nor a lender be. 14. He was neither shabby, nor insolent, nor churlish, nor ignorant. 15. Stout Deloraine nor sigh'd, nor pray'd, nor saint nor lady call'd to aid. 16. No, nor I either. 17. He was not only a heretic, but a traitor. 18. Recall those hasty words, or I am lost forever. 19. It signifies little whether the musician adapts verses to a rude tune, or whether the primitive poet falls naturally into a chant or song. 20. If you are faithful, your wages will be increased; otherwise you shall not have a dollar more. 21. They struggled fiercely for life, but struggled in vain. 22. Yes, but I will. 23. This is strange; yet stranger things have happened. 24. Nevertheless they would not yield. 25. He was a wonderful man, though, that uncle of yours. 26. We do not mean, however, to represent him as a monster of wickedness. 27. Meantime his own day of reckoning had arrived. 28. For the history of our country is one of constant progress. 29. When we are not at ease, we cannot be happy; and therefore it is not surprising that Waverley supposed that he disliked society. 30. Up, then, and be doing. 31. So, then, you agree?

II. Parse also the conjunctions in the following sentences, stating, if they are subordinate, whether the clauses they introduce express time, cause, condition, purpose, or result.

1. When the daylight was admitted, he investigated further.
2. The, very insects, as they sipped the dew that gemmed the

tender grass, joined in the joyous song. 3. But although Edward eagerly carried the gun for one season, yet, when practice had given him some dexterity, the pastime ceased to afford him amusement. 4. After things are in order, we will try again. 5. Before you can be trusted, you must prove yourself worthy. 6. Till I return, stay where you are. 7. Now that we are alone we can talk freely. 8. I am really afraid we cannot afford to trouble you often. 9. I am glad you're hungry. 10. Shall I tell you why? 11. The report is that you are quitting England. 12. That he never will is sure. 13. We are taught that this is not the proper course. 14. The people boasted that they lived in a fertile land. 15. I dread lest an expedition begun in fear should end in repentance. 16. I cannot be persuaded but that marriage is one of the means of happiness. 17. I wonder if he will speak. 18. Whether you do or do not, my opinion of you will remain unchanged. 19. Whither I go, ye cannot come. 20. And ye shall be left few in number, whereas ye were as the stars of the heaven for multitude. 21. The moment my business here is done, I must set out. 22. Once it is over, I shall feel better. 23. He rose politely as I entered. 24. As soon as I whistle, come down. 25. No sooner had I whistled than they came down. 26. While I was there, such a thing could not have happened. 27. Since my country calls me, I obey. 28. Since I saw you last I have done nothing. 29. I now feel satisfied that she referred to me. 30. I regret this the more inasmuch as I may not yield to any dame the palm of my liege lady's beauty. 31. If ye have tears, prepare to shed them now. 32. Provided the facts are right, I will vouch for your reasoning. 33. In case we are surprised, take to the woods. 34. We never met that we didn't fight and scratch. 35. I struck him so hard that he fell senseless. 36. I shifted my position so that I could see his face.

152. Interjections. — With regard to the last part of speech, the interjection, not much needs to be said in addition to the explanation of its character given in § 23. There are also interjection-phrases, *e.g.*, *heavens and earth!* and interjection-clauses, *e.g.*, *Oh*

that I were there ! For the interjectional or exclamatory adjective, *e.g.*, "*what* nonsense you talk !" see § 80. Nouns and pronouns in interjection-phrases or clauses are sometimes hard to parse. In (1) "*what* the *deuce* are you doing !" (2) "*poor Henry !*" (3) "*dear me !*" (4) "*woe is me !*" *deuce* (1) may be considered as an adverbial objective, *Henry* (2) as vocative, *me* (3) as vocative or adverbial objective; *me* (4) is, historically, a dative.

CHAPTER XVI

SYNTAX

153. SYNTAX. — **154.** NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: THE NOMINATIVE CASE. — **155.** NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: THE POSSESSIVE CASE. — **156.** NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: THE DATIVE CASE. — **157.** NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: THE OBJECTIVE CASE. — **158.** ADJECTIVES: INFLECTIONS. — **159.** PREDICATE ADJECTIVES. — **160.** APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVES. — **161.** RELATIVE PRONOUNS — **162.** ADJECTIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. — **163.** SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS OF VERBS. — **164.** VERBS: SINGULAR AND PLURAL. — **165.** VERBS: PERSON. — **166.** VERBS: TENSES. — **167.** THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. — **168.** THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF *Be*. — **169.** USES OF THE PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE OF *Be*. — **170.** USES OF THE PAST SUBJUNCTIVE OF *Be*. — **171.** SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD OF OTHER VERBS. — **172.** SUBSTITUTES FOR THE SUBJUNCTIVE. — **173.** PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES. — **174.** ADVERBS. — **175.** CONJUNCTIONS. — **176.** WORDS USED AS SEVERAL DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH. — **177.** ORDER OF WORDS. — **178.** CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

153. Syntax. — Syntax (§ 3) means “arrangement,” and is the part of Grammar which deals with relations between words. We have already learned to distinguish between the different parts of speech; and we have seen that several of them change their form or have a different force according as they are used in one connection or another. The verb, for example, changes its form in the present tense, according as its subject is singular or plural; the noun has one force or another, according as it is used as the subject or object of a verb. We have,

therefore, already considered much of the subject-matter that belongs to Syntax. It remains for us, however, to discuss under what circumstances one form of a word is used rather than another, and to state the customs or laws that govern the relations of certain words in speaking and writing.

154. Nouns and Pronouns: the Nominative Case. —

We have already (§ 55) noticed the use of the nominative as the subject of a verb, as the case of address, as used in the predicate, and as used absolutely. These complete the uses of the nominative case. Nouns or pronouns used in such constructions have invariably, in standard literary and colloquial English, the form and force of the nominative, except in three sets of instances:

1. After *than* in the phrase *than whom* (§ 133). Compare *but* in the sense of "except" (§ 149).

2. After the verb *be*, in such familiar expressions as "it is *me*." With regard to this colloquial usage there are several things to be said. (a) The same causes that in the sixteenth century led to the substitution of the objective *you* for the nominative *ye*, tended to substitute *me*, *thee*, *us*, *him*, *her*, and *them* for the corresponding nominative forms. For more than a century there was great confusion in the use of the two sets of forms. *Thee*, in the usage of the Society of Friends or Quakers (§ 65), has come to be used as a nominative. The other objective forms, with the exception of *me*, now survive in their nom-

inative use only as vulgarisms.¹ (b) The phrase "it is *me*" has continued to be widely used, however, in spite of the fact that grammarians and rhetoricians have, from the early part of the century until recently, insisted on regarding it as a vulgarism. There are two reasons for the vitality of the expression: first, the phrase is so common that whatever form happened to be the favorite with the people would tend to impress itself strongly on the ear and the mind; second, *me* bears, in form and sound, a closer analogy to *he* and *she* than *I* does, and so would seem more natural than *I*.² (c) The present situation is as follows: "It is *me*" has become a stereotyped, idiomatic, colloquial expression, used without hesitation by the mass of the people, and shunned only by the fastidious. "It is *I*" is, however, likely to retain its place in literary English³ as a more solemn or impressive expression, though not to the exclusion of the other phrase; it is also tenaciously preserved, even in speech, by those who have a strong feeling for consistency in grammatical forms.

155. Nouns and Pronouns: the Possessive Case. — Several broad divisions of the meanings afforded by the possessive case are given in § 56. Only one

¹ See Lounsbury, *History of the English Language* (1894), pp. 272-275; Jespersen, *Progress in Language*, Chapter vii; Emerson, *History of the English Language*, p. 324.

² The expression "it is *me*" is exactly analogous to the French "*c'est moi*."

³ See *Matthew* xiv. 27.

use deserves particular comment. A set of expressions is rapidly growing in favor, in which a possessive is formed from nouns denoting inanimate objects. Until recently the possessive has been almost entirely confined to names of persons and animals, though it is true that we say "a *day's* work," "for *appearances'* sake," and "the *sun's* rays," and that in poetry or poetic prose we use such expressions as "*life's* decline," "this *morning's* flowers," "in *winter's* dearth." It is now common, however, to see in our journals such phrases as "*Boston's* fire," "*India's* famine," "*sugar's* rise," — phrases which seem to have their origin in a violent use of personification (§ 39). The practice is not to be commended. For a similar extension of the possessive *whose*, to cover the neuter gender, see § 71, 1.

156. Nouns and Pronouns: the Dative Case. — The only use of the dative case not already described (§ 57) is the so-called "ethical" dative, or "dative of feeling," of the personal pronouns, indicating a person who may be supposed to be interested in the statement made, *e.g.*, "the Hotspur of the north, he that kills *me* six or seven dozen of Scots at a breakfast" (Shakspeare); "a terrible dragon of a woman . . . claps *you* an iron cap on her head" (Carlyle). This usage is practically obsolete in modern English prose.

It should be noticed that either the direct or the indirect object of an active verb may be made the

subject of a passive verb. We say "they paid *me* my *money*" and (a) "the *money* was paid," or (b) "*I* was paid." We may also say (c) "the *money* was paid *me*" and (d) "*I* was paid the *money*." In (a) *money* is nominative; in (b) *I*. In (c) *money* is nominative, as the subject of the verb, and *me* is dative; in (d) *I* is nominative, and *money* objective, or what is known as a retained object.

157. Nouns and Pronouns : the Objective Case. — The chief uses of the objective have been already discussed. (See §§ 58 and 134.) The only point that remains to be considered is that of the case that follows verbs like *make*, *call*, *appoint*, etc., which are sometimes called factitive ("making") verbs, and which take two objects, e.g., "they made *him king*," "ye call *me chief*." The first object is to be classed as a direct object, the second as a complementary object. In the passive this construction appears as "he was made *king*," "I am called *chief*." Here *king* and *chief* are sometimes parsed as retained complementary objects (compare retained indirect and direct objects, § 156). But they are better treated as predicate nominatives; for, though they have the force of complements, they serve to complement the nominatives *he* and *I*, and are therefore predicate nominatives (cf. § 55, 3).

EXERCISE

Parse the nouns, pronouns, and noun-clauses in the following sentences:

1. Be thou, spirit fierce, my spirit! Be thou me, impetuous one!¹ 2. Professor X, than whom there is no better authority on classical antiquities. 3. No one is here but me. 4. And was this not the Earl? 'Twas none but he. 5. He learned a lesson by that. 6. He came from down east. 7. I taught him Greek. 8. His friends lent him money. 9. He was lent money by his friends. 10. Money was lent him by his friends. 11. His enemies called him a coward. 12. He was called a coward by his enemies. 13. I have been told by my friends that I was rather too modest. 14. We have been taught that we cannot without danger suffer any breach of the constitution.

158. • Adjectives : Inflections. — The adjective has two inflections : (1) to express number, in the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that*; (2) to express comparison, in a great number of adjectives. With regard to both these arises a slight difficulty.

(1) Sometimes in colloquial English, frequently in vulgar English, and from time to time in literary English (especially in that of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries), we find *these* or *those* used with singular nouns (*e.g.*, "*these* kind of men"), in direct contradiction to the ordinary usage, which requires that these adjectives shall agree in number with the nouns they modify (*e.g.*, "*these* men," or "*this* kind of men"). The reason for this curious irregularity is said to be that in Old English the idiom was not "this kind of men," but "this kind's men," and that in the confusion that resulted when, under French influence, the new phrase grew up with *of*, *this-kind-of* came to be regarded as a sort of adjective.² The

¹ Shelley, Ode to the West Wind.

² See Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, pp. 103-108.

result was that *this* was popularly felt to modify *men* and thus became *these*. Whatever the process was, it is undoubtedly true that *these kind*, *these sort*, etc., were long regarded as correct expressions (cf. "*these kind of knaves*," *King Lear*, ii. 2, 107). They are now largely confined to colloquial and vulgar English. Another instance of lack of agreement is the infrequent idiom "*this many summers*," "*this ten years*," — an idiomatic relic of the period when *this* was a plural form.¹

(2) Two peculiarities also occur in the use of the comparative and superlative inflections: first, the once common idiom, — now obsolete, except in vulgar English, — of the double comparative and superlative, e.g., "*the most unkindest cut of all*" (Shakspeare), "*some more fitter place*" (Shakspeare), "*the most straitest sect of our religion*" (*Acts* xxvi. 5); second, the tendency to use the superlative when referring to only two persons or objects, e.g., "*that is the best of the two*." The latter usage seems to be almost invariably due to carelessness, but it is so common, both in colloquial and literary English, and so natural, that it must usually be regarded as an innocent error.

159. Predicate Adjectives. — Predicate adjectives are used (1) after the verb *be*, (2) after the so-called "factive" verbs (§ 157), (3) after verbs of incomplete meaning (e.g., *become*, *seem*, *look*, etc.; see § 90).

1. See Lounsbury, p. 261; Emerson, p. 332.

Examples are : (1) "she is *pretty*"; "(2)(a) "he made it *clean*," (b) "it was made *clean*"; (3) "she looks *pretty*." In (1) and (3) *pretty* is a predicate adjective, modifying the subject, *she*. In (2) *clean* is, in both instances, a predicate adjective. In (a) it modifies *it*, the object; in (b) it modifies *it*, the subject.

Class (2) may also be extended so as to cover such usages as "he stood there *calm* and *resolute*," "his words rang out *clear* and *distinct*." Here the italicized words may be regarded simply as predicate adjectives, modifying the subjects; but as their meaning affects the verbs as well as the subjects, and as the corresponding adverbs (*clearly*, etc.) may be substituted for them with only the slightest change in force, it is best to call them predicate adjectives with an adverbial force. The difference between an adjective and an adverb in such constructions may be seen by comparing (c) "he came *safe*" and (d) "he came *safely*." In (c) the emphasis is on the fact that "he" is safe; in (d) on the fact that he "came" in a safe way.

With the verbs in (3), it is sometimes difficult to determine whether we should logically use an adjective or an adverb. Shall we say, for example, (a) "she looks *pretty*" or "she looks *prettily*"? (b) "it smells *sweet*" or "it smells *sweetly*"? The rule is that when the verb is equivalent to a part of the verb *be*, the adjective is used; otherwise, the adverb. In both (a) and (b) *is* may be substituted for the verbs without changing the meaning to any great degree;

therefore the adjectives are correct, not the adverbs. But we say "he looked *sourly* at him," "he felt *coldly* toward him," because here the verbs have a definite force of their own, can be appropriately modified by adverbs, and are not equivalent merely to "was" or "is."

160. Appositive Adjectives. — Adjectives, like participles, can be used appositively (§ 126) as well as attributively and predicately, *e.g.*, "*clear* as a bell, his voice rang out through the tumult."

EXERCISE

Parse the adverbs and adjectives in the following sentences:

1. I am perfectly well. 2. Can you see well? 3. It was made well. 4. It is well made. 5. The bread is good. 6. When I am with that saintly old man, I feel good myself. 7. I feel well enough. 8. You evidently feel bad¹ to-day. 9. I felt clumsily about me for the rope. 10. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. 11. They drank deep. 12. The door was wide open. 13. I found the way easy. 14. I found the way easily.

161. Relative Pronouns. — All important points regarding the syntax of personal pronouns have already been discussed in connection with nouns. With regard to relative pronouns it only remains to notice the following minor matters:

(1) Relatives are frequently omitted, *e.g.*, "this is the book (*which*) I want."

¹ *Badly* is often used here instead of *bad*, perhaps because of a feeling that *bad* would mean wicked.

(2) When relatives are connected by *and*, *but*, or *or*, it is better that the same pronoun should be used, *e.g.*, "it was a friend *whom* I had always loved, but *whom* [not *that*] I had of late rarely seen."

(3) *And who*, *but who*, *or who*, etc., are best used only when preceded by the same relative, *e.g.*, "he was a patriot *who* had been true to the cause, *and who* was now reaping his reward in his joy at its triumph," not "a patriot true to the cause, *and who* was." The construction against which the student is here warned, on rhetorical grounds, is, however, not infrequent in standard literary English.

162. Adjective and Indefinite Pronouns. — Several points of syntax arise with regard to adjective and indefinite pronouns.

(1) *any* is usually treated as plural, *e.g.*, "if *any* of them are there, tell them to come at once." In older English it was sometimes singular, *e.g.*, "if [there is] *any*, speak, for *him* have I offended."

(2) *none*, originally singular, is now treated as either singular or plural, *e.g.*, "if there is *none* [or *are none*] here."

(3) In referring to *every one*, *every body*, *any*, *any one*, *any body*, etc., the pronoun *he* or *she* is employed according to the context, *e.g.*, "I shall be glad, gentlemen, to help *every one* of you in whatever project *he* undertakes," or "I shall be glad, ladies . . . in whatever project *she* undertakes." If the sex is not determined, we may use (a) the masculine singular

pronoun, (*b*) both the masculine and the feminine singular pronouns, or (*c*) the plural pronoun, *e.g.*, (*a*) "every one here may ask me any questions *he* chooses," (*b*) "*he or she* chooses," (*c*) *they* choose." (*a*) is the form preferred in literary English, unless it is necessary to throw emphasis on the fact that a statement applies equally well to both sexes (*b*). (*c*) is condemned by rhetoricians, and is, on the whole, to be avoided, but it is common in vulgar and colloquial speech, and is not infrequent in literary English.¹

(4) *One* may be referred to in two ways, by (*a*) *one* or by (*b*) *he* or *she*, *e.g.*, "(*a*) if *one* does such a thing, *one* feels ashamed," or (*b*) "*he* feels ashamed." (*a*) is preferred by rhetoricians, but (*b*) is common in literary and colloquial English and is growing in favor.

(5) *Either*, *neither*, *the former*, *the latter*, etc., are properly used when two persons or objects, but not more, are in question, *e.g.*, "*neither* (*i.e.*, of the two persons) moved a step." The principle is the same as that stated in § 158, 2.

EXERCISE

Justify or condemn the use of pronouns in the following sentences:

1. You are the man I must see. 2. Yonder woman was the wife of a certain learned man, English by name, but who had dwelt long in Amsterdam (Hawthorne). 3. I will give him

¹ See Bain, *Higher English Grammar*, p. 310, and Jespersen, *Progress in Language*, pp. 27-30.

any he wants if he can use them in the condition they are in. 4. None but the brave deserves [or deserve ?] the fair. 5. All that can possibly be done for any one who wants ears of wheat is to show them where to find grains of wheat. 6. No one but the children is invited, and everybody is to do just what they like. 7. Every one of the girls started when she heard it. 8. Every man and woman of you is free to do precisely what he pleases.

163. Subjects and Objects of Verbs.—The subject of a verb is regularly in the nominative, and the object of a verb in the objective case. The only exceptions to the latter statement are such colloquial usages as “*who* did you see?” (§ 70). The nominative is also used in the predicate in literary and colloquial English after the verbs *be*, *become*, etc. (§ 90), except in the phrase mentioned in § 154. For the objective as the subject of the infinitive, see § 122. For the objective in exclamatory phrases, see § 152.

164. Verbs: Singular and Plural.—A singular verb is used when the subject is singular or may be conveniently regarded as singular; a plural verb, when the subject is plural or may conveniently be regarded as plural.

A subject may be regarded as singular (1) when it is a collective noun, *e.g.*, “the *committee* makes its report”; (2) when it is the title of a book, *e.g.*, “his *Lives of Celebrated Criminals* is sold for four shillings”; (3) when it is composed of two or more nouns, connected by *and* or unconnected, and of such a sort as to be considered as a single idea, *e.g.*, “his *giant strength and lion bravery* was long

celebrated throughout the nation," "*his strength, his bravery, his fortitude, was* praised alike by the nobles and commons"; (4) when it is composed of two singular nouns connected by *or*, *e.g.*, "*he or his brother is* coming."

On the other hand, it is also perfectly consistent with good usage (1) to regard a collective noun as plural, when it is desired to emphasize the individuals that compose the group, *e.g.*, "*the committee differ* as to what report they shall make"; (2) to regard as plural such a book title as *Lives* when the singular would be awkward or harsh in sound, *e.g.*, "*Johnson's Lives were* the best critical essays of the 'period'"; and (3) to regard all groups of nouns as plural when they are not obviously singular in intent, *e.g.*, "*his great strength and lion bravery were,*" etc., "*his strength, his bravery, his fortitude, were,*" etc. Many doubtful cases occur, and great latitude of choice is allowed. The only safe guide is that of singular or plural meaning. It is believed that typical examples of all the chief doubtful cases are given in the following exercise.

EXERCISE

Account for the use of the singular or the plural verb in the following sentences :

1. The fleet is under sealed orders.
2. The people is a unit on that question.
3. The people of these rude tribes are remarkable for their duplicity.
4. The majority is for him.
5. The majority of his hearers were against him.
6. The *Pleasures of Memory* was published in 1792.
7. Forty yards is a good distance.
8. A laggard in love and a dastard in war

was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar. 9. What is the use and object of such buildings? 10. Upon this there was a fearful cry from heaven, and great claps of thunder. 11. Here also philosophical and religious learning go hand in hand. 12. Bread and butter was his only luncheon. 13. All the furniture, the stock of shops, the machinery which could be found in the realm, was of less value than the property which some single parishes now contain. 14. Two and two is four. 15. The woman, with her four children, have escaped. 16. A great general, with three divisions of the army, is what we need. 17. His bravery, as well as his honesty, is in question. 18. Neither the king nor either of his oldest sons are¹ permitted to leave the island (Swift). 19. I resemble one of those animals that has² been forced from its forest to gratify human curiosity (Goldsmith). 20. It is only fire and the sword that will purify you. 21. The tumult and the shouting dies.

165. Verbs: Person.—The inflection of the verb indicates person only in the present tense (*e.g.*, *I love*, *he loves*), and in the present, perfect, and future tenses of *be* (§§ 102 and 100). A difficulty in syntax sometimes arises when a verb in one of the tenses mentioned has two subjects connected by *or*. *E.g.*, “either the captain or I start (or starts?) at daybreak,” “either you or he is (or are?) mistaken.” All such cases it is better to avoid by a different form of expression, *e.g.*, “either the captain or I must start at daybreak,” “either you are mistaken or he is.” If the difficulty cannot be avoided, it should be noticed that in general the verb agrees in person and number with the nearest subject, *e.g.*, “either I or you are,” “either I or they are,” “either they or he is.” The exceptions are

¹ Should be, by logic and by the best literary usage, *is*.

² Should be *have*.

usually those in which *I* immediately precedes the verb, *e.g.*, “either *you* or *I* are mistaken,” “either *he* or *I* is mistaken.” It would seem that here the ear rejects the form *am*, as too contradictory to the reference of the first pronoun.

166. Verbs: Tenses. — With regard to tenses, it is only necessary to notice that in subordinate clauses following verbs in the past tense, only the past, perfect, and pluperfect tenses are used, *e.g.*, (a) “*I hope we can reach the station before the storm has succeeded in overtaking us*”; (b) “*I hoped that we could reach the station before the storm had succeeded in overtaking us.*” The same is true with quotations introduced by such expressions as “he said that.”¹

167. The Subjunctive Mood. — The subjunctive mood is that rare form of the verb-conjugation which represents a statement as a subject of doubt, uncertainty, or hope, not as a fact (§ 94). Just how rare this usage now is may be seen from the fact that in ten representative volumes by recent writers of high reputation, containing together approximately 900,000 words, there are said to be only 269 instances of the subjunctive of the verb *be*, and only 15 instances of the subjunctive of any other verb than *be*.²

¹ Quotations in the identical words of the speaker are sometimes called *direct* discourse; quotations introduced by “he says that,” “he declared that,” or their equivalent, *indirect* discourse.

² See *The [London] Author*, June and July, 1897. The statistics quoted of course refer only to instances in which the subjunctive differs from the indicative in form.

168. The Subjunctive of *Be*.—The indicative and subjunctive of *be* are here placed side by side :

PRESENT.		PAST.	
<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive.</i>	<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive.</i>
I am	I be	I was	I were
[thou art]	[thou be]	[thou wast, wert]	[thou wert]
he is	he be	he was	he were
we are	we be	we were	we were
you are	you be	you were	you were
they are	they be	they were	they were

PERFECT.		PLUPERFECT.	
<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive.</i>	<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive.</i>
I have	I have	I had	I had
[thou hast]	[thou have]	[thou hadst]	[thou had]
he has	he have	he had	he had
we have	we have	we had	we had
you have	you have	you had	you had
they have	they have	they had	they had

169. Uses of the Present Subjunctive of *Be*.—The present subjunctive of the verb *be* is used in three ways. In modern English the first is by far the most common.

(1) To indicate that the statement is to be regarded as a supposition: *e.g.*, “if he *be* the rightful owner, the property shall be delivered to him”; “I will have my revenge on him though he *be* a king”; “no man can do these miracles that thou doest, except God *be* with him”; “whatever the cause *be*, I am determined to discover it.” Notice what the force of the indicative would be, in each of these examples.

(2) In a number of other subordinate clauses, introduced by *that*, *lest*, *till*, *whether*, etc., with much the

same effect: *e.g.*, "it seems best that the matter *be* now brought to a close"; "heaven grant that we *be* the better for it"; "I tremble lest he *be* discovered"; "I cannot do anything till thou *be* come hither"; "I am at a loss to know whether this *be* so or not."

(3) To indicate a wish: *e.g.*, "green *be* the turf above his grave."

The perfect subjunctive is used in the same ways, though it is far less common.

170. Uses of the Past Subjunctive of *Be*. — The past subjunctive is used in three ways. In modern English the first is by far the most common.

(1) To indicate that the statement made is "contrary to fact," or, in other words, that the supposition expressed is the opposite of the actual fact: *e.g.*, "I wish it *were* in my power [but it is not] to help you"; "if I *were* you, I should do nothing of the sort." In constructions of this sort, however, the indicative may be used: *e.g.*, "I wish it *was* in my power [but it is certainly not]." Here both the past indicative and the past subjunctive, it should be noticed, refer to present time.

(2) In indirect discourse (see § 166), representing the use of the subjunctive *be* in direct discourse described in 169, 1: *e.g.*, "I declared that I should have my revenge on him, though he *were* a king"; "no man could do this except God *were* with him." The indicative, however, is more common in this construction: *e.g.*, "though he *was* a king."

(3) Rarely, in subordinate clauses, following verbs in past tenses (see § 166), and representing the use of *be* described in 169, 2: *e.g.*, "even those who had often seen him were in doubt whether this *were* truly the brave and graceful Monmouth."

The pluperfect subjunctive is also used with the force of (1), but refers to past time, *e.g.*, "if I *had been* there" [but I was not].

EXERCISE

Point out the subjunctives, state in what tenses they are found, and classify them under the headings indicated in §§ 169 and 170.

1. Thy will be done. 2. Would that I were young again. 3. It is not necessary that all the buildings be completed on time. 4. See that a guard be ready at my call. 5. He succeeded in twisting him, as it were,¹ out of his place. 6. Haste, lest he be angry with thee. 7. Were it written in a thousand volumes. I would not believe it. 8. Although a woman be not actually in love, she seldom hears without a blush the name of a man whom she might love. 9. Thou couldest have no power at all against me except it were given thee from above. 10. Lose no moment ere Richelieu have the packet. 11. Instead of asking where his sisters were, he broke out into imprecations, declaring that, were he spared a year, every member of the hostile band should die by his hand.

171. Subjunctive Mood of Other Verbs. — The present subjunctive of *love*, which may serve as a type of all other verbs, except auxiliaries, differs from the indica-

¹ Class under 170, 1. The clause cannot be satisfactorily analyzed, and must be considered as an idiom. The force, however, is plain. It indicates that the word or group of words which it limits cannot be taken literally.

tive only in the form of the third person singular, *e.g.*, he *love*, instead of the indicative, *he loves*. The past subjunctive is precisely the same as the past indicative.¹ The perfect and pluperfect subjunctives differ from the corresponding indicatives precisely as in *be* (§ 168). For the subjunctives of auxiliaries, see § 172.

These subjunctive forms may be used in all the ways mentioned in §§ 169, 170. They are, however, practically obsolete, except in the uses described in § 169, (1) and (3), and § 170, (1); *e.g.*, "and if he *keep* a stiff upper lip, never *show* the white feather, and *be* always fair and square, no one need ask any more of him"; "heaven *help* him"; "if he *had ventured* anything of the sort, he would not now be living." Of these forms the last is by far the most common.

172. Substitutes for the Subjunctive. — In Old and Middle English the subjunctive was more sharply distinguished from the indicative in form, and was much more frequently used than at present.² In Modern English the subjunctive has almost entirely disappeared, thanks to our instinctive desire for uniformity in inflection. Its place has been to a great degree taken by the auxiliaries, *should*, *would*, *may*,

¹ Both tenses also differ from the indicatives in the obsolete forms of the second person singular, which are as follows: present subjunctive, *thou love* (indicative, *lovest*); past subjunctive, *thou loved* (indicative, *thou lovedst*).

² For the subjunctive in Shakspeare, see Abbott's *Shakespearian Grammar*.

might, *could* (§§ 107-113). These are substituted for the subjunctive as follows: (§ 169, 1) "If he *should be* the rightful owner," "though he *should be* a king," "except (unless) God *should be* with him," "whatever the sense *may be*"; (169, 2) "that the matter *should be*," etc., "that we *may be*," etc., "lest he *may be*," etc.; (169, 3), "*may* the turf *be* green," etc.; (170, 1) "I wish [that] I *might help* you"; (170, 3) "whether this *could be*," etc. As auxiliary verbs omit *s* in the third person singular of the present, there is no way of distinguishing in form between the subjunctive and the indicative,¹ and the fact that the meaning of these verbs approaches so closely the idea expressed by the subjunctive has made it impossible to decide when the uses of the auxiliary verbs just mentioned and illustrated entitles them to be classed as subjunctives or as equivalents of the subjunctive. The writer inclines to the latter method. He would parse these auxiliaries, wherever they have a subjunctive force, as forming (indicative) verb-phrases, equivalent to the subjunctive. See §§ 110-113.

EXERCISE

Point out the subjunctives and account for their use.

1 'Tis better that the enemy seek us. 2. Take heed he hear us not. 3. A wise horseman should take care lest he pull the rein too tight. 4. This night before the cock crow, thou shalt deny me thrice. 5. May I be hanged if I am not telling you the

¹ Except in the obsolete second person singular.

whole truth. 6. If you had a better reputation I might trust you. 7. I could do it if I choose. 8. It was my wish that he might accompany me. 9. I hope you may have success. 10. Whatever might have been Sophia's sensations, the rest of the family was easily consoled. 11. Did I hate thee, I would bid thee strike, that I might be avenged. 12. If we had another opportunity, we would begin at the other end. 13. He could answer you if he choose. 14. If it should be late, come again. 15. Might it not be well to telegraph for rooms? 16. If a fortune should come to me, I should not know what to do with it. 17. I would help you if I could.

173. Participles and Infinitives. — With regard to the syntax of participles and infinitives, it is necessary to add only a few points.

(1) Participles, in their appositive use (§ 126), should, as a rule, limit a specific noun or pronoun: *e.g.*, "*disappointed* in this, I then endeavored," etc., not "*disappointed* in this, my next intention was," etc.

(2) The perfect infinitive is best used when it represents an act completed prior to the time of the main verb. For example, we say, "I am glad *to find* you," "I am glad *to have found* you so soon," *i.e.*, I am glad that the process of finding you has been completed; "I was glad to find you" and "I was glad to have found you" have corresponding meanings. After a perfect tense it is rare to find a perfect infinitive, except by error. Thus, we say, "I should have expected to find you here." What "I should *have* expected to *have* found you here" means it is hard to see.

(3) Within the last twenty or thirty years the usage known as the "split infinitive," *i.e.*, the placing

of an adverb between the sign of the infinitive (*to*) and the infinitive itself, has come to be widely used in colloquial and literary English: *e.g.*, "I have orders *to immediately set out*." This usage has been violently attacked by rhetoricians as a vulgarism. It is, however, used without hesitation by many writers of repute. In some cases it has the distinct advantage of bringing an adverb into an emphatic position: *e.g.*, "I wish *to thoroughly understand* this matter." In others it is intolerably awkward.

174. Adverbs. — With regard to the syntax of adverbs, it is necessary to observe the following points:

(1) The Old English usage of making a negative statement emphatic by employing two or more negative words has survived only in vulgar English: *e.g.*, "you *haint* (have not) *no* business here *nohow*"; "you *won't* do it again, *neither*." In modern English two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: *e.g.*, "there is *no* one who would *not* have done the same," *i.e.*, every one would have done the same.

(2) *Only* usually immediately precedes or follows the word or group of words which it limits: *e.g.*, (a) "*only* an honest man would have made such a reply," (b) "an honest man *only* (or *alone*) would have made such a reply," (c) "an honest man would *only* have made such a reply," (d) "under such circumstances an honest man would have replied *only*," (e) "would have made *only* such a reply," (f) "would have made such a reply *only*." In (a) and (b) *only*

limits *an honest man*, in (c) and (d) the verbs *would have made* and *would have replied*, in (e) and (f) *such a reply*. In (a) and (b) the meaning is "no one but an honest man"; in (c) and (d), that he would have replied but done nothing else; in (e) and (f), that he would have replied in such a way and in no other. After a noun *alone* may properly take the place of *only*. It may be parsed as a predicate adjective, with an adverbial force, after an omitted verb; *i.e.*; *he alone* is equivalent to "he [does so, and he is] alone [in so doing]." *Only*, in the same construction, may be parsed as limiting a verb understood. The alternative is to treat them both as adverbs limiting a noun.

175. Conjunctions.—The position of the correlative conjunctions *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, *not only . . . but (also)* should be noticed. Each word of the pair immediately precedes the word, or group of words, that is thus to be connected; *e.g.*, "it was discovered that *either* the city must be surrendered within two weeks *or* provisions and ammunition obtained," "the interpreter was unable *not only* to speak French *but* even to understand it." An error in following this usage results in connecting dissimilar words or groups of words, *e.g.*, "the city was attacked *not only* on the river side, *but also* a fierce fire was kept up from the batteries to the north." Here the group of words to be connected are "the city was attacked," etc., and "a fierce fire was," etc.

Not only should, therefore, begin the sentence (“*not only* was the city,” etc.).

176. Words Used as Several Different Parts of Speech.

— This is a convenient place to review the uses of several puzzling words, which have at different times the force of two or more different parts of speech. These are *as*, *but*, *that*, and *what*.

As may be (1) a relative pronoun (§ 73), (2) a relative adverb (§ 133), (3) a subordinate conjunction (§ 150).

But may be (1) a relative pronoun (§ 73), (2) an adverb equivalent to *only*, as in “*but* one hour more,” (3) a preposition (§ 149), (4) a coördinate conjunction (§ 147), and (5) a subordinate conjunction (§ 149). As a coördinate conjunction it may also be correlative (§ 147).

That may be (1) a relative pronoun (§ 71), (2) a demonstrative pronoun (§ 75), (3) a demonstrative adjective (§ 80), (4) an adverb or adverbial objective (§ 134), and (5) a conjunction (§ 149).

What may be (1) an interrogative pronoun (§ 70), (2) a relative pronoun (§ 71), (3) a demonstrative pronoun (§ 75), (4) an interrogative adjective (§ 80), (5) a relative adjective (§ 80), and (6) used in the conjunctive-phrase, *what with*, e.g., “*what with* the heat and the noise I did not sleep a wink.” As a relative pronoun and as a relative adjective, it may be definite (§§ 71, 80) or indefinite (§§ 72, 80).

EXERCISE

Parse the italicized words and phrases in the following sentences :

1. This she proceeded to *deftly and, as far as an inexperienced male observer can vouch, artistically* operate upon.¹
2. The sight was one to *immensely* scandalize old Parliamentarians.¹
3. I have determined to *carefully* investigate the whole matter.¹
4. He *only* lived for her sake. 5. He *alone* lived for her sake.
6. He lived *only* for her sake. 7. He lived for her sake *alone*.
8. He gave a dollar *only*. 9. I am greatly obliged to you; *only*² you should not have attempted so dangerous a deed.
10. The captain was *not only* wounded, *but* scarcely a private returned unhurt.¹
11. I will *neither* believe you nor your brother.
12. I am glad *to have seen* you.¹
13. I expected *to have started* yesterday.¹
14. *What* you are most anxious to conceal is usually just *what* is best known.
15. *What* is it *that* you are so anxious to conceal?
16. I cannot imagine *what* it is *that* you are so anxious to conceal.
17. *What* I shall do depends upon where I go.
18. *What* cannot be cured must be endured.
19. *What* a fuss you make!
20. *What* fuss do you mean?
21. I know *what* excuses you will make.
22. I tell you *what*! Let us start at once.
23. *What* with packing and getting started, I am tired to death.
24. *That* is the way I purpose to begin.
25. To *that* sort of thing I have no objection.
26. I do not believe *that that* is the way to begin.
27. I wouldn't give *that* much for his plan.
28. *But* ~~one~~ man returned.
29. No one *but* him returned.
30. The soldiers returned, *but* they had been badly beaten.
31. I do not doubt *but* he has made his plans perfect.
32. *As* a gentleman, can you give your word that you were there?
33. It is not such a day *as* I would have chosen.
34. It is *as* clear *as* can be.
34. It is clear *as* day.

177. Order of Words.—As the relation of one word or group of words to another is most frequently de-

¹ Comment on the propriety of the usage.

² Here equivalent to *but*. What part of speech?

terminated in English, not by the form of a word but by its position (see, for instance, § 174, 2), it follows that a very large part of the syntax of our language depends upon the order of words. It is impossible, however, within the natural limits of secondary school instruction to study, in any satisfactory way, the laws of thought and expression which govern the order of words in English. Indeed, even the elementary study of these laws belongs rather to rhetoric¹ than to grammar. It will be sufficient here to notice only two points with regard to the order of words: (1) the attributive adjective regularly precedes its noun, and (2) the subject regularly precedes its verb.

Exceptions to (1) occur (a) in poetry or exalted prose, *e.g.*, "for vespers *nine*," "a pennon *gay*"; and (b) in certain phrases, usually derived from the French,² which have become stereotyped expressions, *e.g.*, "heir *apparent*," "blood *royal*," "time *immemorial*," "body *politic*." In many apparent exceptions the adjective is really half predicate in its force, *e.g.*, "Tweed's fair river, *broad and deep*, and Cheviot's mountains *lone*." Here the italicized adjectives have the effect of predicate adjectives in relative clauses, *i.e.*, Tweed's fair river [which is] broad and deep, and Cheviot's mountains [which are] lone.

Exceptions to (2) occur (a) in a great variety of instances in which special emphasis is given to words

¹ See Wendell's *English Composition*, pages 35-37; and Carpenter's *Exercises in Rhetoric* (Advanced Course), Chapter ix.

² In French the attributive adjective frequently follows its noun.

or phrases by placing them at the beginning of the sentence, *e.g.*, "such is the case," "soon after began the real conflict," "near the house stood an old well"; (*b*) in somewhat similar instances, when an adverbial subordinate clause precedes the principal clause, *e.g.*, "while the government of the Tudors was in its highest vigor, took place an event which," etc.; (*c*) sometimes after the relative adverb *as*, *e.g.*, "large as was the amount"; (*d*) sometimes in relative clauses beginning with a preposition, *e.g.*, "the man upon whom rests the whole responsibility"; (*e*) where a condition is implied, *e.g.*, "were that the case, I should not be surprised." In older English the subject regularly followed the verb in questions, *e.g.*, "saw you him?" We now almost invariably make use of the auxiliaries *do* and *did* in asking questions referring to the present or past. The verb then (*f*) falls in the middle of the resulting verb-phrase, as is also the case in questions involving compound tenses of the verb or verb-phrases. The only other common instance in which the verb precedes its subject is in "quoth he," "said he," etc. An inversion in the natural English order, except in cases where for one reason or another it has become a part of English idiom, always gives an exalted or pretentious effect to the style.

EXERCISE

Point out the cases of inverted order in the following sentences and decide (1) whether the order could

be made more natural, and (2) what in that case the difference in meaning or effect would be.

1. "I am not to be lodged there," said the king, with a shudder. 2. Smiled then, well pleased, the aged man. 3. Wise are all his ways. 4. Very civil were the salutations on both sides. 5. Typical of his own nature is this conjunction of the false and the true. 6. Victories, indeed, they were. 7. Young he seemed and sad. 8. Friends have I none. 9. Here are the other passengers. 10. There was a famine in the land. 11. There can be no dispute about it. 12. Therefore am I bold. 13. Now, however, came great news. 14. Scarcely had he uttered these words than he fell pierced to the heart. 15. O swiftly can speed my dapple-grey steed. 16. On the window-seat lay a banjo and an open book. 17. To such straits is a king sometimes driven. 18. Never was there a mind more keenly critical than his. 19. Not only has he succeeded in his first attempt, but he has already laid plans for a second. 20. The greater the new power they create, the greater seems their revenge. 21. Will nothing move you? 22. How do you feel? 23. What visions have I seen! 24. Perish the thought. 25. What were his thoughts I cannot tell.¹ 26. A very neat cottage residence, in which lived the widow of a former curate. 27. Death itself is not so painful as is this sudden horror. 28. Many and various were the curiosities he had collected. 29. It is only natural for me to be surprised. 30. There is something I have to tell you. 31. Him the almighty power hurled headlong, flaming, from the ethereal sky.

178. Conditional Sentences. — Conditional sentences are so familiar a feature of Greek and Latin grammar that the student of the classics may feel ill at ease unless he has classified such sentences in accordance with the usages of English syntax. As a matter of fact, owing to the comparative infrequency

¹ The indirect question sometimes retains the inverted order of a direct question.

of the subjunctive, the English conditional sentence scarcely presents any difficulty. We may, however, classify English conditional sentences, like Latin, into (1) logical, (2) ideal, and (3) unreal.¹ (1) A logical condition simply makes one fact dependent upon another supposed fact, *e.g.*, "if to-morrow is fair, we will get an early start." (2) The ideal condition (compare § 169) makes a fact dependent on something that is conceived of as ideally possible, *e.g.*, "if to-morrow be fair, we will get an early start." (3) The unreal condition states as if it were a fact something that cannot be true, because it is dependent on an unreal supposition, *e.g.*, "if to-day were fair, we could start now." In (1) the logical conditional sentence, neither the verb in the subordinate clause nor that in the principal clause can be subjunctive. In (2) the ideal conditional sentence, the dependent verb must be in the subjunctive or consist of an equivalent verb-phrase. In (3) the unreal conditional sentence both verbs must be subjunctives or consist of equivalent verb-phrases.

EXERCISE

Classify the following conditional sentences, and state whether the verbs in the principal and subordinate clauses are indicative or subjunctive.

1. If you have tears, prepare to shed them now. 2. A penal statute is virtually annulled if the penalties which it imposes are regularly remitted. 3. My blessings light upon thee if thou

¹ See the classification in Gildersleeve's *Latin Grammar*.

respect them. 4. If solitude succeed to grief, release from pain is slight relief. 5. Every bullet hits the mark, according to the huntsman's superstition, if it have first been dipped in the marksman's blood. 6. On Thursday, if he were in the house, why didn't he speak? 7. If I were the conservative party in England, I would not for a hundred thousand pounds an hour allow those corn-laws to continue. 8. If he calls, say that I am out. 9. I would not have said this for the world if I was not sure of being right. 10. What should I be if I was deaf to the poverty and sorrows of others. 11. So I were out of prison and kept sheep, I should be as merry as the day is long. 12. Supposing it were true, what could you do about it? 13. Were but your duty with your faith united, would you still share the low-born peasant's lot? 14. Had he called, I should have heard him. 15. Were you to speak aloud, our lives would not be safe. 16. I should have known it by this time if he had arrived.

EXERCISE FOR REVIEW

[The following exercise embraces a number of puzzling constructions, which will test the pupil's knowledge of the principles he has been over in the preceding chapters.]

Parse the italicised words:—

1. Somehow or *other* I do not agree with you. 2. You are *no* soldier. 3. You are *no* happier. 4. I have *none* to give you. 5. *All* the better. 6. I should like *some* more pudding. 7. Where does this road lead *to*? 8. Where do you come *from*? 9. *Even* Homer sometimes nods. 10. I like him,—his faults *notwithstanding*. 11. I must see him, and *that* quickly. 12. *Both their mothers*¹ were handsome women. 13. *All their* hearts were set on it. 14. Make the *best* of it. 15. I was given to *understand* that you were coming. 16. The instructions *within* will guide you. 17. A few more *struggles*, and all was over. 18. To *tell* the truth, I am completely bewildered. 19. It is shameful that he *should be* so treated. 20. It is better that I *should re-*

¹ The peculiarity of this expression lies in the fact that *both* and *their* refer to the same people. Cf. "the mothers of *them both* were handsome women."

main. 21. I wish he *would come*. 22. I *had rather* not go than go under such circumstances.¹ 23. If you mouth it, as many of your players do, I *had as lief* the town-crier spoke my lines. 24. Never you *mind* what they say. 25. *Do* what I will, I can't finish my work. 26. *Who was it that said so?* 27. They took no *notice of* him. 28. He *was taken* absolutely no notice of. 29. The time was too short for *us* to *accomplish* anything. 30. To *think* that he could be so foolish. 31. If he had wished, he *could have made* his fortune. 32. If he had wanted to, he *might have made* his fortune. 33. Is he *anywhere* hereabouts? 34. How could it be *otherwise?* 35. The wind is *east*. 36. Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast. 37. I must make *up* my mind. 38. He locked himself *in*. 39. I want *to*, but I can't. 40. It was a poor bed to sleep *in*. 41. I saw him *some* two hours ago. 42. I am *all* out of breath. 43. The men *all* rushed forward. 44. He is punished *enough*. 45. I have had *enough* of this. 46. There is wood *enough* here. 47. He was heard to *deny* it. 48. I want it *done* at once. 49. I saw him *drowned*. 50. I sent him to *see* if it was true. 51. There was no water to *drink*. 52. He saw a dainty handkerchief on the ground, *which* handkerchief he promptly took possession of. 53. *Suffice it to say* that the journey was completed at last. 54. I command *you* to fire. 55. They were commanded to *fire*. 56. He looked every *inch* a king. 57. He kept his hat *on*. 58. The journey *home* was uneventful. 59. He *would* often say that a mere chance had saved him. 60. He asked *if* I was there. 61. He commanded that they *should be released*. 62. He declared that they *should be released*. 63. They did not know *what* to do, where to go, or *who* to look to for advice. 64. If you are a man, prove yourself to be *so*. 65. Eat *such* things as are set before you. 66. *As* not unfrequently happens, the cold weather has come on us suddenly. 67. *Up*, guards, and *at* 'em.

¹ *Had rather go* is a perfectly correct idiom. *Had go* can be parsed as an idiomatic verb-phrase, equivalent to the past subjunctive, or *had* may be taken separately as in the past subjunctive, with the infinitive *go* as its direct object. *Would rather go* is also correct usage. *Had rather* was not derived from *would rather*, but was based on the analogy of the old phrase, *had as lief*.

68. *As regards* money, you must look out for yourself. 69. How would *it* suit you to *start* to-morrow? 70. Will you be *so* good *as* to *help* me a moment? 71. It seems to *be* true. 72. I don't know for whom to *vote*. 73. *Judging* from appearances, he is poor. 74. My advice to you *as a friend* is to *start* at once. 75. The smith a mighty man is *he*. 76. The rain came *pouring* down. 77. Be still, sad heart, and cease *repining*. 78. I saw it *coming*.

CHAPTER XVII

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

179. PURPOSE OF ANALYSIS.—**180.** SENTENCES CLASSIFIED AS TO THOUGHT.—**181.** SENTENCES CLASSIFIED AS TO FORM.—**182.** THE EXTENSION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.—**183.** EQUIVALENTS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.—**184.** NOUN-PHRASES AND NOUN-CLAUSES.—**185.** ADJECTIVE-PHRASES AND ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES.—**186.** AD-VERB-CLAUSES.—**187.** HOW TO ANALYZE A SIMPLE SENTENCE.—**188.** HOW TO ANALYZE COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

179. Purpose of Analysis. — The system or science of Grammar is chiefly valuable in that it enables us to analyze our forms of expression, thus determining more accurately their force and meaning. We have already seen how all words may be classed under various heads, the parts of speech, and have noticed the relations which they bear to one another in speech and writing. We must now complete our study by discussing the various kinds of sentences which may be formed by combination of these parts of speech, and by deciding on a method of analyzing sentences into their logical parts.

180. Sentences Classified as to Thought. — Sentences may be classified, according to the thought or idea they contain, as (1) declarative sentences, those that make a statement of fact; (2) imperative sentences, those that express a command or a wish; and (3) in-

interrogative sentences, those that ask a question. *E.g.*, (1) "the rain continues"; (2) "make the best time you can," "heaven help you"; (3) "can you help me?" Exclamatory sentences are closely akin to (3), and are usually placed in that class.

181. Sentences Classified as to Form. — A much more important method, however, is that which classifies sentences according to their form, as (1) simple, (2) complex, and (3) compound.

(1) A simple sentence contains only a single statement, command, or question, *e.g.*, (*a*) "the rain is falling"; (*b*) "rain and hail were pouring down"; (*c*) "it thunders and lightens terribly." It should be noticed that in a simple sentence there may be more than one subject, as in (*b*); more than one predicate, as in (*c*); or even both, as in (*d*), "the rain and hail began in an instant and poured down incessantly." Even in the last case, however, the form of a simple statement is preserved, for each subject applies to each verb, and *vice versa*.

(2) A complex sentence contains one simple or principal statement, command, or question, and one or more subordinate clauses, *e.g.*, "the rain fell so fast that we were drenched through before we could reach home."

(3) A compound sentence contains two or more principal statements, frequently united by conjunctions, *e.g.*, "the rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew." Each principal statement may,

however, be accompanied by subordinate clauses, as in sentence 10 in the following exercise. Such sentences may be called complex-compound.

EXERCISE

Are the sentences in the following passage simple, complex, compound, or complex-compound?

"The *Pilgrim's Progress* stole silently into the world. Not a single copy of the first edition is known to be in existence. The year of publication has not been ascertained. It is probable that, during some months, the little volume circulated only among poor and obscure sectaries. But soon the irresistible charm of a book which gratified the imagination of the reader with all the action and scenery of a fairy tale, which exercised his ingenuity by setting him to discover a multitude of curious analogies, which interested his feelings for human beings, frail like himself, and struggling with temptations from within and from without, which every moment drew a smile from him by some stroke of quaint yet simple pleasantry, and nevertheless left on his mind a sentiment of reverence for God and of sympathy for man, began to produce its effect. In puritanical circles, from which plays and novels were strictly excluded, that effect was such as no work of genius, though it were superior to the *Iliad*, to *Don Quixote*, or to *Othello*, can ever produce on a mind accustomed to indulge in literary luxury. In 1678 came forth a second edition with additions; and then the demand became immense. In the four following years the book was reprinted six times. The eighth edition, which contains the last improvements made by the author, was published in 1682, the ninth in 1684, the tenth in 1685. The help of the engraver had early been called in; and tens of thousands of children looked with terror and delight on execrable copper plates, which represented Christian thrusting his sword into Apollyon, or writhing in the grasp of Giant Despair. In Scotland, and in some of the colonies, the Pilgrim was even more popular than in his native

country.¹ Bunyan has told us, with very pardonable vanity, that in New England his dream was the daily subject of the conversation of thousands, and was thought worthy to appear in the most superb binding. He had numerous admirers in Holland, and among the Huguenots of France. With the pleasures, however, he experienced some of the pains of eminence. Knavish booksellers put forth volumes of trash under his name; and envious scribblers maintained it to be impossible that the poor ignorant tinker should really be the author of the book which was called his."

— MACAULAY: *John Bunyan*.

182. The Extension of the Parts of Speech. — It will be readily seen that complex and compound sentences are both amplifications of the simple sentence. The simple sentence consists in its barest form of a noun and a verb, or, if the verb be transitive, a noun (subject), a verb (predicate), and a noun (object). All sentences are built up on this basis. Every sentence has its noun-subject, its verb-predicate, and, perhaps, its noun-object, though the place of the nouns may be taken by pronouns, by phrases, and by clauses, and the place of the verb by verb-phrases. Now, nouns can be modified only by adjectives, and verbs only by adverbs. It is obvious, then, that the parts of speech really essential in the structure of a sentence are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. But each of the parts of speech has, as we have already noticed (§ 25), what we may call the power of extension; that is, it may consist of a group of words, *i.e.*, a phrase or a clause. It is, therefore, necessary that

¹ Here the sense is, "than he was in his native country." The clause introduced by *than* is, therefore, a subordinate clause, and the whole sentence is complex.

we should examine the equivalents of the various parts of speech.

183. Equivalents of the Parts of Speech. — The equivalent of a part of speech may be (1) a phrase, *i.e.*, a group of words not containing a subject and a predicate, or (2) a clause. What we have to do, then, is to examine the system by which phrases and clauses have the force of each of the parts of speech. We may except the pronoun, which is itself an equivalent of the noun. As for the other parts of speech, prepositions and conjunctions can, in accordance with their nature as connecting particles, have as equivalents only phrases, and preposition-phrases and conjunction-phrases we have already examined (§§ 140 and 147).¹ The equivalents of the exclamation have also been considered (§ 152). It remains for us, therefore, to examine more particularly noun-phrases, noun-clauses, adjective-phrases, adjective-clauses, and adverb-clauses.

184. Noun-Phrases and Noun-Clauses. — Noun-phrases are formed by infinitives, and have been explained in §§ 62 and 115–120. Noun-clauses (see § 62) are frequently introduced by *that*: *e.g.*, (a) “*that we are ruined* (subject) is certain”; (b) “I hope *that he will have the courtesy to come*” (object); (c) “the truth is *that we have been deceived*” (predicate nominative);

¹ Verb-phrases have already been treated in §§ 105–113; adverb-phrases in §§ 138, 145. All groups of words containing verbs and having the force of verbs we call verb-phrases, not verb-clauses.

(*d*) "I am informed *that the bank had failed*" (retained object; see § 156); (*e*) "the fact *that he is here* (apposition) is proof enough." Frequently, however, *that* is omitted, as may be the case in each of the preceding examples except (*a*). In such sentences, as "*it is certain that we are ruined,*" *it* may be parsed as the grammatical subject and the noun-clause as the logical subject; or the noun-clause may be parsed as in apposition with *it*. Compare (*a*). It should be noticed that indirect questions are always noun-clauses.

EXERCISE

Review the exercise following § 122, and parse the noun-clauses in the following sentences:

1. That you were there is well known. 2. It is well known that you were there. 3. I know that you were there. 4. That you were there I am certain. 5. I told him that you were there. 6. It is probable that during some months the volume circulated only among poor and obscure sectaries. 7. Bunyan has told us, with very pardonable vanity, that in New England his dream was the daily subject of the conversation of thousands. 8. I have no doubt ~~that~~ he will come. 9. I understand how it was done. 10. Go straight to where he stands. 11. I only asked whether you could come. 12. I am informed that there is no danger. 13. The condition on which I consent is that you agree never again to be guilty of such an offence. 14. It is my belief that we were wholly mistaken as to the facts. 15. It is on the shoulders of each citizen that the real responsibility rests.¹ 16. I asked if I could come. 17. The question of² what he means must be settled at once.

¹ Compare, "the fact is that on the shoulders of each citizen rests the real responsibility."

² Compare the appositional possessive in "my scamp of a brother."

185. Adjective-Phrases and Adjective-Clauses. — Adjective-phrases (see §§ 88, 144) are of three sorts: (1) prepositional phrases, *i.e.*, those introduced by a preposition, (2) participial phrases, and (3) infinitival phrases. Typical examples are as follows: (1) “a relative *of my mother*,” “my faith *in you*,” “hope *for its success*”; (2) “a preparation *composed of camphor and quinine*,” “*seeing him come*, I hastened to the door”; (3) “the life *to come*,” “faith *to believe*.” Not many of these adjective-phrases could be exchanged for equivalent adjectives, but it is not hard to see that they all have the force of adjectives, in that they describe a noun or modify its meaning.

Adjective-clauses (see §§ 88, 138) are introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs, expressed or understood: *e.g.*, “he *who hesitates* is lost”; “there I saw a sight *that can be better imagined than described*”; “it was at the time *when I first met you*”; “the spot *where I stood* I remember distinctly”; “at the moment [*when*] *I caught sight of him*, I fired both barrels”; “a friend [*whom*] *you can trust in all things* is hard to find.”

186. Adverb-Clauses. — Adverb-clauses have already been treated (see § 138). They are introduced by subordinate conjunctions or relative adverbs, modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (or their equivalents), and express manner, degree, etc. (§ 130). They have a wide range of meaning, indicating purpose, cause, condition, concession, etc. Examples are: “*as he*

walked on, he stopped his song"; "I shall wait until he returns"; "he got away before I knew it"; "if you are responsible for it, I advise you to be careful."

EXERCISE

Review II. in the exercise following § 138; find the adjective-clauses in the exercise following § 181, and the adverb-clauses in Part II. of the exercise following § 138, in the exercise following § 151, and in the exercise following § 181.

187. How to analyze a Simple Sentence.—To analyze a simple sentence it is necessary to find (1) the subject, (2) the predicate, (3) the object, (4) the modifiers of the subject, (5) the modifiers of the predicate, (6) the modifiers of the object. The subject, predicate, and object usually follow each other in the order stated, though this order is often departed from (§. 177). Modifiers of the subject or object must be adjectival, answering the question "what kind of," and may be adjectives, adjective-phrases, or adjective-clauses. Modifiers of the predicate must be adverbial, answering the question "how," "when," "where," "to what degree," or "what for," etc., and may be adverbs, adverb-phrases, or adverb-clauses. The analysis of a sentence may be performed mentally or indicated on paper by some convenient arrangement of lines or columns.

Take, for example, the sentence, "Above the level bit of timber to the east a vast dome of pale, undaz-

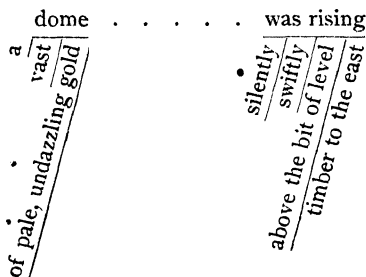
zling gold was rising, silently and swiftly." Here (1) the subject is *dome*, (2) the predicate *was rising*; there is (3) no object. The subject is modified by (4) the article *a*, the adjective *vast*, and the adjective-phrase *of . . . gold*. The predicate is modified by (5) the adverbs *silently* and *swiftly*, and by the adverb-phrase *above the level bit of timber to the east*. This adverb-phrase may be further analyzed into the following parts: (a) the preposition *above*; (b) its object, the noun *bit*; (c) the modifiers of *bit*, viz., the article *the*, the adjective *level*, the two adjective-phrases *of timber* and *to the east*.

This analysis may be graphically represented in the following manner, by placing the subject, predicate, and object in separate columns. The modifiers of each are placed directly below it.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.
dome	was rising	<i>none</i>
Adjectives: <i>a</i> , <i>vast</i> Adjective-phrase: of . . . <i>gold</i>	Adverbs: <i>silently</i> , <i>swiftly</i> Adverb-phrase: above the level bit of timber to the east	<i>none</i>

Another convenient method of representation is the following, in which adjectives, adjective-phrases,

adverbs, and adverb-phrases are placed on oblique lines joining the words or phrases they modify.



There is some danger that the pupil will learn to depend too much on graphical representations of analysis. These methods are often convenient in dealing with intricate sentences, but the student should make it his ambition to acquire the power of holding in his mind the mutual relations of the parts of a sentence. He will find it of great advantage in the study of rhetoric and literature and of the grammar of other languages.

188. How to analyze Complex and Compound Sentences. — Complex sentences differ from simple sentences in having a clause or clauses as modifiers of the subject, predicate, or object. Take, for example, the complex sentence, "Then he rented an upstairs tenement, in which his family lived on terms of equality and the greatest intimacy with the family of the landlord, occupying the ground floor, until he could buy or build a house for himself, the upper story of which could in time be rented." Here *he* is

the subject, not modified; *rented* is the predicate, modified only by *then*; *tenement* is the object, modified by the adjectives *an* and *upstairs*, and the adjective-clause which takes up the remainder of the sentence. The main structure of the sentence is so simple that it need not be represented by any scheme. The final clause, however, is intricate, and its analysis may be represented as follows :

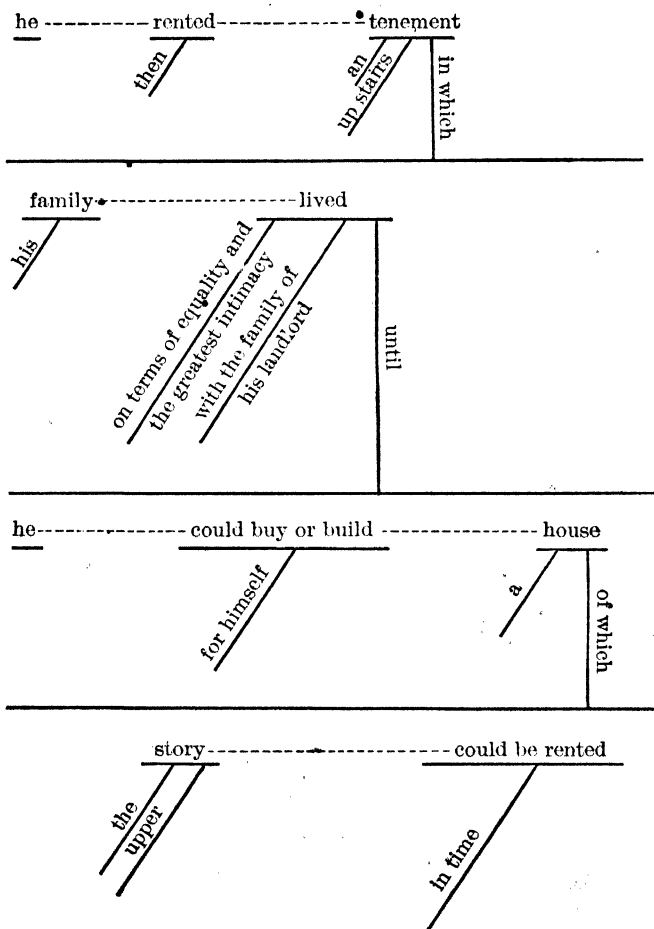
SUBJECT AND MODIFIERS.	PREDICATE AND MODIFIERS.
family	lived
Pronoun (possessive case, with force of adjective); his.	Adverb-phrases : (1) on terms of equality and the greatest intimacy ; (2) with the family of the landlord. •Adverb-clause : (3) until he could buy or build a house for himself.

This graphical scheme so far makes clear the intricacy of the long adjective-clause that we can see further that in (2) *family* is modified by the participial adjective-phrase *occupying the ground floor*, and that in (3) *house* is modified by the adjective-clause *the upper story of which could in time be rented*.

Compound sentences can be divided at once into the simple or complex sentences that compose them. These simple or complex sentences can then be treated in the ways described above.

The same analysis may also be shown as follows.

Adjective-clauses and adverb-clauses are placed on lower lines, parallel with the words they modify. On the link between the two lines is placed the connecting word or phrase.



EXERCISE

As an exercise in the analysis of sentences, it is recommended that the class take a chapter or series of paragraphs from some standard work of modern English prose, such, for example, as an essay of Macaulay's or a speech of Burke's. For convenience, however, several passages are here inserted.

"He had, in spite of much mental and much bodily affliction, clung vehemently to life. The feeling described in that fine but gloomy paper which closes the series of his *Idlers* seemed to grow stronger in him as his last hour drew near. He fancied that he should be able to draw his breath more easily in a southern climate, and would probably have set out for Rome and Naples, but for his fear of the expense of the journey. That expense, indeed, he had the means of defraying; for he had laid up about two thousand pounds, the fruit of labors which had made the fortune of several publishers. But he was unwilling to break in upon this hoard, and he seems to have wished even to keep its existence a secret. Some of his friends hoped that the government might be induced to increase his pension to six hundred pounds a year; but this hope was disappointed, and he resolved to stand one English winter more. That winter was his last. His legs grew weaker; his breath grew shorter; the fatal water gathered fast, in spite of incisions which he — courageous against pain, but timid against death — urged his surgeons to make deeper and deeper. Though the tender care which had mitigated his sufferings during months of sickness at Streatham was withdrawn, he was not left desolate. The ablest physicians and surgeons attended him, and refused to accept fees from him. Burke parted from him with deep emotion. Windham sat much in the sick-room, arranged the pillows, and sent his own servant to watch at night by the bed. Frances Burney, whom the old man had cherished with fatherly kindness, stood weeping at the door; while Langton, whose piety eminently qualified him to be an adviser and comforter at such a time, received the last pressure of his friend's hand within. When at length the moment, dreaded

through so many years, came close, the dark cloud passed away from Johnson's mind. His temper became unusually patient and gentle; he ceased to think with terror of death and of that which lies beyond death; and he spoke much of the mercy of God and of the propitiation of Christ. In this serene frame of mind he died, on the 13th of December, 1784. He was laid a week later in Westminster Abbey, among the eminent men of whom he had been the historian,—Cowley and Denham, Dryden and Congreve, Gay, Prior, and Addison."

—MACAULAY: *Life of Samuel Johnson*.

"As to the wealth which the colonies have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought those acquisitions of value, for they seemed even to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised your esteem and admiration. And pray, Sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the people of New England have of late carried on the whale fishery. Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits, whilst we are looking for them beneath the arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen Serpent of the South. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place in the progress of their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that whilst some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries; no climate that is not witness to their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, but in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone

of manhood. When I contemplate these things; when I know that the colonies in general owe little or nothing to any care of ours, and that they are not squeezed into this happy form by the constraints of watchful and suspicious government, but that, through a wise and salutary neglect, a generous nature has been suffered to take her own way to perfection; when I reflect upon these effects, when I see how profitable they have been to us, I feel all the pride of power sink, and all presumption in the wisdom of human contrivances melt and die away within me. My rigor relents. I pardon something to the spirit of liberty."

—BURKE: *Speech on Conciliation with America.*

"And Raveloe was a village where many of the old echoes lingered, undrowned by new voices. Not that it was one of those barren parishes lying on the outskirts of civilization, inhabited by meagre sheep and thinly scattered shepherds; on the contrary, it lay in the rich central plain of what we are pleased to call Merry England, and held farms which, speaking from a spiritual point of view, paid highly desirable tithes. But it was nestled in a snug, well-wooded hollow, quite an hour's journey on horseback from any turnpike, where it was never reached by the vibrations of the coach horn, or of public opinion. It was an important-looking village, with a fine old church and large churchyard in the heart of it, and two or three large brick-and-stone homesteads, with well-walled orchards and ornamental weathercocks, standing close upon the road, and lifting more imposing fronts than the rectory, which peeped from among the trees on the other side of the churchyard; a village which showed at once the summits of its social life, and told the practised eye that there was no great park and manor house in the vicinity, but that there were several chiefs in Raveloe who could farm badly quite at their ease, drawing enough money from their bad farming, in those war times, to live in a rollicking fashion, and keep a jolly Christmas, Whitsun, and Easter tide."

—GEORGE ELIOT: *Silas Marner.*

"The music also of the challengers breathed from time to time wild bursts expressive of triumph or defiance, while the clowns grudged a holiday which seemed to pass away in inactivity; and

old knights and nobles lamented in whispers the decay of martial spirit, spoke of the triumphs of their younger days, but agreed that the land did not now supply dames of such transcendent beauty as had animated the jousts of former times. Prince John began to talk to his attendants about making ready the banquet, and the necessity of adjudging the prize to Brian de Bois-Guilbert, who had, with a single spear, overthrown two knights and foiled a third.

“At length, as the Saracenic music of the challengers concluded one of those long and high flourishes with which they had broken the silence of the lists, it was answered by a solitary trumpet, which breathed a note of defiance from the northern extremity. All eyes were turned to see the new champion which these sounds announced, and no sooner were the barriers opened than he paced into the lists. As far as could be judged of a man sheathed in armor, the new adventurer did not greatly exceed the middle size, and seemed to be rather slender than strongly made. His suit of armor was formed of steel, richly inlaid with gold, and the device on his shield was a young oak tree pulled up by the roots, with the Spanish word *Desdichado*, signifying Disinherited. He was mounted on a gallant black horse, and as he passed through the lists he gracefully saluted the Prince and the ladies by lowering his lance. The dexterity with which he managed his steed, and something of youthful grace which he displayed in his manner, won him the favor of the multitude, which some of the lower classes expressed by calling out, ‘Touch Ralph de Vipont’s shield—touch the Hospitaller’s shield; he has the least sure seat, he is your cheapest bargain.’

“The champion, moving onward amid these well-meant hints, ascended the platform by the sloping alley which led to it from the lists, and, to the astonishment of all present, riding straight up to the central pavilion, struck with the sharp end of his spear the shield of Brian de Bois-Guilbert until it rung again. All stood astonished at his presumption, but none more than the redoubted Knight whom he had thus defied to mortal combat, and who, little expecting so rude a challenge, was standing carelessly at the door of the pavilion.

“‘Have you confessed yourself, brother,’ said the Templar,

‘and have you heard mass this morning, that you peril your life so frankly?’

“‘I am fitter to meet death than thou art,’ answered the Disinherited Knight; for by this name the stranger had recorded himself in the books of the tourney.

“‘Then take your place in the lists,’ said Bois-Guilbert, ‘and look your last upon the sun; for this night thou shalt sleep in paradise.’

“‘Gramercy for thy courtesy,’ replied the Disinherited Knight, ‘and to requite it, I advise thee to take a fresh horse and a new lance, for by my honor you will need both.’

“‘Having expressed himself thus confidently, he reined his horse backward down the slope which he had ascended, and compelled him in the same manner to move backward through the lists, till he reached the northern extremity, where he remained stationary, in expectation of his antagonist.”

—SCOTT: *Ivanhoe*.

APPENDIX

I. PHONOLOGY

189. The English Alphabet imperfectly Phonetic. — Our alphabet is a *phonetic* one; that is, the characters stand for the elementary sounds of the language, not for words or syllables, nor for complete ideas. A perfect phonetic alphabet should have a character for each elementary sound in the language, and always use the same character for the same sound. The English alphabet is very imperfect in this respect. The same letter often represents two or more sounds, as do *a* and *g*; the same sound is represented in two or more ways (*k*, *c*, *g*); some elementary sounds are represented by two letters (*th*, *sh*), some letters stand for two sounds each (*x*, *j*). Furthermore, there are many silent letters, not pronounced at all.

These silent letters often stand for a sound which was spoken when the spelling of the word was established, but has since been lost. Many of the silent final *e*'s are of this sort. The silent letters *gh* (as in *night*) once represented a sound no longer heard at all in English; it is represented by *ch* in German. Many German words have, or did have until a quite recent revision of the spelling, the letters *th*, which once represented the same sound as in English, but are now pronounced like a simple *t*, since the German has lost the other sound. The same change is now going on in the pronunciation of some people in English; it is barely possible, for instance, that a generation or two from now the distinction between *t* and *th* will not appear in the language as commonly spoken in New York City by the mass of the people. The letter *r* after vowels (*e.g.*, in *far*) has already become silent in New York, as well as in other parts of America and England, though it is still pronounced in our western states. The English generally make

no distinction between *w* and *wh*, — pronouncing, for instance, *witch* and *which* exactly alike, — though the Americans generally do.

In fact, changes in the pronunciation of sounds are going on in all languages, sometimes with great rapidity, and in no language are all the sounds given exactly alike by all the people who speak the language. It would therefore be impossible to devise a phonetic alphabet which should represent perfectly the sounds of the language a generation later, even if all the people who speak the language could agree as to which portion of them should furnish the standard when the alphabet was adopted.

190. The Relation of the Dictionary to Standard Pronunciation. — A dictionary can be authoritative in questions of pronunciation only to a limited extent. It can say what variety of actual pronunciation is to be taken as the standard, and it can describe the actual state of that pronunciation at the time of publication. Suppose, for instance, that for the French language the pronunciation of the better classes in Paris is accepted as the standard. A dictionary can say that for any given word each sound is pronounced by the better classes in Paris as in some other word which is more common and about which there is no question. It can then describe these sounds in technical language so that an expert phonetician can get a pretty clear idea as to just how they are produced, and what their relation is to other sounds in French and in other languages. No person, however, who is not an expert phonetician can use this technical information. Others can only pronounce the sound in question as they believe the better classes in Paris pronounce it. If they have the opportunity to hear that pronunciation, they may learn to do it themselves. If they have not the opportunity and depend upon the statement of the dictionary, they will give to the sound in any doubtful word the same quality as they do to the sound in the key-word; this may or may not be the sound heard in Paris. Moreover, it is almost certain that, fifty years after the publication of a dictionary, some of the sounds will have changed so much in the usage of the class of people who set

the standard, that what the dictionary says will no longer be true.

Now suppose the pronunciation of the educated class in London were taken as the standard for English. In London, the word *pass* is pronounced with the same vowel sound as is heard in the word *last*, which is the key-word used by Webster. Practically every one who speaks English has the same vowel sound in *last* and *pass*, but the Londoner gives in these words the same sound as in the word *far*. Most Americans outside of New England, however, use the same quality of vowel in these words as in *man*. There are also two special vowels heard in certain regions for the set of words to which *last* and *pass* belong — a vowel between the *a* in *far* and in *man*, heard in New England, and a very high (§ 193) vowel, between the *a* in *man* and the *e* in *hen*, heard in the north of England and occasionally in New York. Now suppose a man from Ohio, who has always pronounced *last* and *man* with the same vowel sound, wants to know what sound to give in such a word as *rather* or *advantage*. He sees that the dictionary gives *last* as the key-word for the sound, and if he does not look farther, will pronounce *răther* and *advăntage*. If, however, he studies the matter a little, he will find out that the London standard makes *rather* rhyme with *father*, and gives the same sound in *advantage* and a large number of other words, which he can learn from the dictionary; and if he works hard enough he can change his usage to conform to that of London. He has the London sound in his own speech, and has merely to substitute it instead of his own natural pronunciation wherever the dictionary prescribes it.

If our Ohioan should go to New York to live, he would sometimes be in doubt whether a New Yorker said *man* or *men*, for the sound given to the vowel in *man* is higher (§ 193) in New York than in Ohio. If he went to Tennessee, he would surely understand *pen* when the natives meant *pin*, for the *i* is pronounced so low in Tennessee that it is practically the same as the *ɛ* in Ohio, and very near to the *æ* in New York. A Tennessean might even understand *pin* from a New Yorker who meant to say *pan*; the Ohioan would understand *pen* in the same case. The London standards for *æ*, *ɛ*, *i*, cannot be so described

or explained, except to an experienced phonetician, that an American can know whether his practice conforms to them or not. All such fine shades of difference change continually, and it is impossible for the dictionary to regulate them in any way, though it is useful in indicating the accentuation commonly given to words, and in stating which of certain recognized sounds is commonly considered appropriate, at the time of compilation, in any given case.

191. Vowels and Consonants.— Audible speech is the sound heard when the breath passes from the lungs through the mouth and nose, modified in various ways by the action of various organs, of which the most important are the tongue and the vocal cords.

If the vocal cords vibrate, a musical tone is produced which can in some cases be heard at a distance; if not, only the friction of the breath is heard; but in either case the position of the other organs at any single instant gives a sound of distinctive quality, which is recognized as a unit and represented by a character in a phonetic alphabet.

The oral passage can be, by the action of the tongue or other organs —

- (1) Completely closed.
- (2) Closed sufficiently to make secondary any vibration of the vocal cords, and impress the ear chiefly by the noise of the breath at the point of constriction.
- (3) Left open, but modified so as to give a distinct quality to the sound produced by the vocal cords.

Sounds produced in the last way are called vowels (Lat. *vocalis*, from *vox*, "voice"); e.g., *a* in *father*, *o* in *tone*, *i* in *pin*, etc. Sounds produced in the two other ways are called consonants (Lat. *con*, "with," and *sonans*, "sounding"), because they cannot be heard at a distance without a vowel to carry them; e.g., *p*, *s*, *l*, *m*, etc.

192. Classification of Consonant Sounds. — Of the two classes of consonants, those under (1) are known as *stops*, those under (2) as *open consonants* or *spirants*. The latter are further divided into (*a*) *fricatives*, in which the opening is so

narrow that a distinct buzzing or hissing sound is heard (*s, sh, f*), and (*b*) *sonorous consonants*, which approach the vowels in quality, and sometimes perform the functions of vowels in unaccented syllables (*l, r, w*). Two of these, *w* and *y*, are often called *semivowels*.

Any position of the tongue or lips may be taken and held, whether the vocal cords vibrate or not. It follows that for any such position there may be two effects produced on the ear; and in practice these effects are so different that they usually have different letters to represent them. If the vocal cords vibrate during the production of a sound, it is called a *sonant* or *voiced*; if not, a *surd* or *voiceless*. Compare *b, p*; *z, s*; *th* in *their* and in *thin*. In the first sound of each pair there is a vibration which can be felt by putting the finger on the "Adam's apple"; in the second there is no such vibration.

The breath may pass out from the lungs by the nose as well as by the mouth. Any sound, vowel or consonant, surd or sonant, may be produced with the nasal passage open.¹ It requires, however, a larger expenditure of breath than the same sound without nasality, and in English the only nasal sounds are such as would be stops but for the opening of the nasal passage (*m, n, ng*). These are also sonants, for a nasal surd requires a good deal of breath.

We distinguish certain points at which the stoppage or constriction of the oral passage may take place, and give the sounds names according to the place where they are produced. Thus the following names of consonants originate:

(1) *Labials* (Latin *labrum*, "lip"), divided into (*a*) bi-labials, produced by the two lips, and (*b*) labio-dentals, in which one lip meets the opposite teeth.

(2) *Dentals* (Latin *dens*, "tooth"), in which the tongue meets the upper teeth.

(3) *Alveolar* (Latin *alveolus*, "gum"), in which the tongue meets the ridge behind the upper teeth.

(4) *Palatals*, in which the upper surface of the tongue meets the roof of the mouth. Those formed farthest back are often called *gutturals* (Latin *guttur*, "throat").

¹ In some languages nasal vowels are used regularly.

With these few facts, which by no means exhaust the subject, we can form the following table of consonant sounds:

			LABIAL.		DENTAL.	ALVEOLAR.	PALATAL.	GUTTURAL.
			bi-labial	labio-dental				
stops		sonant	b			d	g	g
		surd	p			t	k	k
open	fricatives	sonant		v	th	z	zh	
		surd		f	th	s	sh	
	sonorous	sonant				l	r	
		surd						
	nasal	sonant	m			n		ng
	semivowels		w				y	

Some of the blank spaces in the table, which gives only English sounds, may be filled by sounds occurring in other languages. For instance, bi-labial and guttural spirants are quite common, and many languages pronounce *d*, *t*, *l*, and *n* as dentals and not as alveolars.¹

193. Classification of Vowel Sounds.—The vowels are named according to the part of the tongue which is raised in pronouncing them. Thus, a *front* vowel is produced by raising the front of the tongue toward the “palatal” region of the roof of the mouth, and a *back* vowel by raising the back part toward the “guttural” region. If the middle part, between these two, is raised, there is produced what is called a *mixed* vowel. These are again subdivided, according to the amount of the elevation of the part of the tongue used, into *high*, *mid*, and *low* vowels of

¹ There are many further and finer distinctions which cannot be touched upon here. They may be studied in the standard works of reference. See Appendix, V.

each class. Of course, such terms represent only certain shades out of an infinite number possible. No two persons give exactly the same shade to any vowel, and all vowels are likely to be affected by neighboring sounds, so that one person does not always give the same shade to the same vowel. But if any American will watch his tongue in a mirror as he pronounces the following vowels in order, he will see that the front part of it takes a lower position for each succeeding vowel: *ee* in *feet*, *i* in *pin*, *a* in *station*, *e* in *pen*, *a* in *man*. These are the front vowels. The tongue-positions for the back vowels are less easy to observe, partly because those vowels are generally "rounded" (see below), and the lips interfere with the view. They are, in order from high to low: *oo* in *fool*, *oo* in *wood*, *o* in *tone*, *o* in *not*,¹ *a* in *father*,¹ *a* in *all*. A low-mixed vowel is *u* in *but*. If almost any vowel is pronounced negligently, the tendency is to raise the usual part of the tongue less high than for the clear pronunciation of the vowel, and thus a mixed vowel is produced.

In unaccented syllables, in rapid and careless pronunciation, almost all the vowels in English may be, and generally are, replaced by a mid-mixed, or "neutral," vowel. The front vowels are oftener replaced by a weak "short *i*," though usage in this matter varies with individuals and locality. In any unaccented syllable the tongue may take any position between that which would be used for the vowel of that syllable if under full accent, and the "neutral" position. Different speakers show great individual variations in this matter. The general tendency in English is to use the tongue as well as the lips rather passively in pronouncing all vowels, so that our vowels have not so clear and distinctive a quality as those of the German and Italian, for instance.

The quality of a vowel may be greatly affected by pursing or "rounding" the lips. In particular, the back vowels receive a much more distinctive quality if this is done, and in most languages they are thus "rounded." In English this is much less done than in most other languages, but even in English *oo* and *o* are generally somewhat rounded. In many languages there are

¹ Identical in quality in most parts of the United States.

pairs of vowels distinguished only by rounding (as *i* and *u* in French, *ie* and *ü* in German). In some varieties of English the *a* in *father* and the *a* in *all* pair in this way, but there are no such pairs of vowels in the usual American pronunciation.

194. Diphthongs. — Two vowel sounds may be pronounced with one impulse of the voice, or in one syllable, as *oi* in *void*, *ou* in *loud*. Our sound of *i* in *pine* is really a diphthong (= *a* + *i*); so is the *u* in *acute* (= *i* + *oo*). Many words are printed with two vowels in one syllable which are now pronounced as a simple vowel (*east*, *breath*, *could*). On the other hand, some of our long vowel sounds are, in the pronunciation of many people, real diphthongs (*a* in *day* = *e* + *i*; *o* in *no* = *o* + *oo*; *o* in *do* = a high-mixed vowel + *oo*).

EXERCISE

In the passage from Macaulay quoted on page 216, classify the consonants and vowels, with the aid of the teacher, in accordance with the divisions given in §§ 192, 193.

II. PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES

195. Inflection, Composition, and Derivation. — In Chapter IV. we noticed the distinction between inflection, composition, and derivation. Inflection we have already treated in connection with the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the verb, and the adverb. There are no principles relating to composition that are of value to the young student except this, that in English compounds the first part may almost invariably be properly considered as a modifier, *e.g.*, *bookcase*; *i.e.*, not any case, but a case for books, as distinguished from a watchcase or a guncase; *man-hater*, as distinguished from woman-hater; *mule-driver*, *oxcart*, *double-dyed*, *flesh-colored*, etc. The first part of the compound thus has the force of an adjective or adverb. The exceptions consist mostly of words like *man-of-war*, *brother-in-law*, in which the second part is an adjective-phrase. The student is referred to a standard dictionary for further information as to the meaning and history of compound forms. Under the head of derivation we must consider briefly the common prefixes and suffixes.

196. Prefixes and Suffixes. — Prefixes and suffixes are the monosyllables or dissyllables which are added to a word either at the beginning (prefixes) or at the end (suffixes), and which alter radically the meaning of a word (*e.g.*, *prefix*, *suffix*), sometimes changing it from one part of speech to another (*e.g.*, *man*, noun; *manly*, adjective). Some prefixes and suffixes are of Old English origin; some are from the Greek, Latin, and French. The greater part are Latin. Prefixes and suffixes which we still use in forming new words, or still feel the force of in old words, we may call *living*. Those which we no longer use in forming new words, and no longer feel the force of in old words, we may call *dead*.

197. Dead Prefixes and Suffixes. — By far the majority of prefixes and suffixes have so completely lost their force that we no longer use them in forming new words, and unless we know the languages from which they originally came, scarcely recognize them as having a separate meaning. Such are the Old English prefix *for* in *forgiven* and the Latin prefix *ab* in *abhor*. It would be unwise for students who are not acquainted with Old English or the classical languages to burden their memories with lists of these dead prefixes and suffixes, which are fully described in the dictionaries and in works dealing with the history of the language. Pupils who have studied Latin, however, should have their attention called to the use made in English of the many common Latin prefixes: *ab* (*abs*, *a*), "from, away" (*abrupt*, *abscend*, *avert*); *ad* (*a*, *ag*, *af*, etc.), "to" (*advent*, *aggravate*, *affable*); *amb* (*am*), "around" (*ambition*, *amputate*); *cis*, "on this side of" (*cis-Alpine*); *de*, "from, away" (*degrade*); *ex* (*e*, *ef*), "out of" (*extend*, *erect*, *effort*); *ne*, "not" (*nefarious*); *ob* (*os*, *o*, *oc*) "towards" (*oblong*, *ostensible*, *omit*, *occasion*); *per*, "through" (*pervade*); *pre*, "before" (*precept*); *pro* (*prod*), "before, forth, away from," etc. (*prohibit*, *prodigal*); *re* (*red*), "back, repetition" (*repeat*, *redeem*); *se* (*sed*), "apart" (*secede*, *sedition*); *sine*, "without" (*sinecure*); *sub* (*suc*, *sug*, etc.), "under," etc. (*subscribe*); *subter*, "under" (*subterfuge*); *trans* (*tra*), "across, through, beyond" (*transient*, *traduce*).

Pupils who study Latin should also notice the following facts with regard to the formation of nouns and adjectives by means of Latin suffixes. The abstract Latin endings, *tia*, *cis*, are represented in English by *cy*, *sy* (e.g., *constancy*); *io* by *ion* (*formation*); *tas* by *ty* (*liberty*); *itudo* by *itude* (*beatitude*). The Latin *atus*, signifying office or function, has become *ate* (*episcopate*); the Latin (*t*)*ura* has become *ure* (*figure*). The Latin (*t*)*or*, indicating the actor, is retained in such words as *emperor*, *governor*. The Latin *or* of abstract nouns. e.g., *splendor*, is used in such words as *valor*, *honor*, etc. In British English these words usually retain the French form *our*. The Latin verb-ending *ficare* appears in the English *fy* (*fortify*). The following Latin adjective endings are retained in English: *bilis* becomes, *ble* (*noble*); *icus*, *ic* (*satiric*); *alis*, *al* (*natural*); *ilis*, *il* or *ile*

(hostile)"; *anus*, *an* or *ane* (human); *ianus*, *ian* (barbarian); *inus*, *ine* (saline); *ans* or *ens*, *ant* or *ent* (arrogant, eminent); *aris*, *ar* (familiar); *arius*, *ary* (extraordinary); *ior*, *ior* (inferior); *osus*, *ose* or *ous* (verbose, glorious). Our abstract ending *ry* (*chivalry*) comes from the French *rie*, which is derived from the late Latin. Our diminutives in *ule* (*globule*), *cule* (*animalcule*), *et* (*cabinet*), *let* (*streamlet*) also come from the Latin, as well as our nouns ending in *ment* (*instrument*).

Pupils who study Greek should notice the force in English of the following Greek prefixes: *an* or *a*, "not" (*anarchy*, *atheist*); *amphi*, "around" (*amphitheatre*); *apo*, "from" (*apology*); *cata*, "down" (*cataract*); *di*, "twice" (*dilemma*); *dia*, "through" (*diagnosis*); *en*, "in" (*energy*); *epi*, "upon" (*epilogue*); *ex*, "out of" (*exodus*); *hypo*, "under" (*hypocrite*); *meta*, "with" (*metamorphosis*); *para*, "beside" (*paragraph*); *pro*, "before" (*prologue*); *syn*, "with" (*synagogue*).

Many of the Latin and Greek prefixes mentioned above, and a few suffixes, are still used in the formation of new scientific terms. One is helped in understanding scientific nomenclature, to a slight degree, by knowing the meaning of these prefixes and suffixes, but this knowledge is of little value unless it is accompanied by an equal knowledge of the many Latin or Greek words or roots to which they are added.

EXERCISE

With the aid of the teacher, pick out, in the first paragraph of the exercise following § 188, as many instances as possible of (1) inflection, (2) composition, (3) derivation. Let pupils who have studied Latin or Greek point out the force of the prefixes and suffixes in as many as possible of the instances of derivation.

198. Living Prefixes of English Origin. — There are only two prefixes of English origin that we still apply freely to new words, *mis* (as in *misdeed*) and *un* (*unfinished*), the former with the force of the adjective "bad," and the latter with the force of a negative. We no longer feel the force of *be* in *begin* and similar words. We still recognize its force as a prefix, however, when it is used to make verbs from nouns and adjectives,

e.g., *belittle*, *bedim*, *befog*, *bemoan*, *behead*. As living prefixes we may also class, *by*, *out*, and *off*, *e.g.*, *byplay*, *byway*, *byword*, *offhand*, *offshoot*, *offspring*; *outcome*, *outlet*, *outrun*. It should be remarked, however, that *by*, *off*, and *out* exist as separate words, and that the process of forming words in which they occur may also be regarded as composition.

199. Living Prefixes of Latin or Greek Origin. — From the Latin we have the living prefixes, *ante*, "before" (*anteroom*); *bi*, "half" or "twice" (*biennial*); *circum*, "around" (*circumnavigate*); *con* or *co*, "with" (*co-operate*); *contra* (*counter*), "against" (*contradict*, *counter-irritant*); *dis*, with a negative force (*disinherit*); *ex*, "out of" (*ex-president*); *extra*, "beyond" (*extraordinary*); *in* (*im*), negative (*impossible*); *inter*, "between" (*interstate*); *intro*, "within" (*introspective*); *non*, negative (*nonsense*); *post*, "after" (*postgraduate*); *pre*, "before" (*prefix*); *praeter*, "beyond" (*preternatural*); *re*, implying repetition (*recall*); *retro*, "behind" (*retroactive*); *semi*, "half" (*semicircle*); *sub*, "under" (*sub-agent*); *super*, "over" (*super-cargo*); *trans*, "beyond" (*transatlantic*); *ultra*, "beyond," *i.e.*, excessive (*ultra-rational*); and through the French, *demi*, "half" (*demigod*). From the Greek we have *anti*, "against" (*anti-Christian*); and *hyper*, "over" (*hyper-sensitive*).

200. Living Suffixes of English Origin. — We still feel the force of the English suffixes *er*,¹ denoting the actor or agent, *e.g.*, *driver*; *hood*, indicating rank or condition (*boyhood*); *kin* and *ling*, diminutives (*lambkin*, *yearling*); *ness*, *ship*, and *th*, indicating abstract nouns (*loveliness*, *friendship*, *truth*); and the adjective and adverb endings *en*, *fold*, *full*, *ish*, *less*, *ly*, *some*, *ward*, and *y* (*golden*, *manifold*, *tuneful*, *oldish*, *helpless*, *manly*, *lonesome*, *homeward*, *mighty*).

201. Living Suffixes of Foreign Origin. — We still feel the force of a number of suffixes of foreign origin. These are: (1) *ee* (French), added to nouns to denote, usually, the person

¹ Often difficult to distinguish from equivalent suffixes of Latin origin, *e.g.*, *barber*, *officer*. See § 201, 2.

who takes a passive share in an action; e.g., *employee* (as distinguished from *employer*), *grantee*, *legatee*, *mortgagee* (as distinguished from *grantor*, *legator*, *mortgager*), *trustee*, *referee*. (2) *or*, *ar*, *er*, *eer*, *ier* (from the Latin, through the French), denoting a person who performs a certain act or function; e.g., *emperor*, *scholar*, *officer*, *muleteer*, *gondolier*. (See the preceding section and note 1.) (3) *ess*, as a feminine ending. This can be considered as an inflectional ending. (See § 36, and compare *trix*, § 36, 3.) (4) *ite*, from the Greek, through the Latin, denoting persons belonging to certain places, nations, parties, or sects; e.g., *Jacobite*, *Israelite*. (5) *ese*, from the Latin, forming adjectives from names of countries, e.g., *Portuguese*; also from nouns denoting kinds of literary style, e.g., *Johnsonese*, *Bostonese*. (6) *ist*, from the Greek, denoting a person who follows a certain trade or pursuit, or who belongs to a certain party or sect; e.g., *chemist*, *nihilist*, *theosophist*. (7) *ism*, from the Greek, forming abstract nouns; e.g., *patriotism*, *presbyterianism*. (8) *ble*, from the Latin, forming adjectives that have usually a passive sense; e.g., *tolerable*, *bearable*, i.e., that which can be tolerated, can be borne. (9) *ize* or *ise*, from the Greek, forming verbs from nouns and adjectives; e.g., *crystallize*, *galvanize*, *hypnotize*.

EXERCISE

In the exercise following § 188, point out, with the aid of the teacher, the force of as many as possible of the prefixes and suffixes, forming, where it is possible, other words from those given in the text, by means of the prefixes and suffixes mentioned in §§ 198-201.

III. METRE

202. Difference between Poetry and Prose in English.

—In form, English poetry may differ from prose in that it is rhymed. Whether it be rhymed or not, however, poetry is always metrical or rhythmical, that is, the word-accent occurs in a regular or approximately regular order; e.g., "*Old Mother Hubbard, she went to the cupboard,*" a line in which, the first, fourth, seventh, and tenth syllables are accented. Poetry thus differs externally from prose, in which little care is usually taken with regard to the order in which accented syllables occur.

203. Lines and Feet. — Poetry consists of series of lines or verses. Each line consists of a number of groups of syllables, called feet, each group containing one and only one strongly accented syllable. In each group, moreover, the accented syllable occurs, as a rule, in the same place. For instance, in "*So Hec|tor spake; | the Tro|jans roar'd| applause,*" there are five feet, in each of which the accent falls on the second syllable. In "*This is the| forest pri|meval. The|murmuring| pines and the| hemlocks,*" there are six feet, in each of which the accent falls on the first syllable. It should be noticed that, in a given line or group of lines, the time given to the pronunciation of each foot is the same. Compare a measure in music.

EXERCISE

Indicate the accents in the following lines and mark off the feet.

- (1) O Solitude! where are the charms
That sages have seen in thy face?
- (2) The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea.

- (3) O! it was pitiful,
Near a whole city full,
Home she had none.
- (4) Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory;
We carved not a line, and we raised not a stone, —
But we left him alone in his glory.
- (5) Like a poet hidden
In the light of thought,
Singing hymns unbidden,
Till the world is wrought
To sympathy with hopes and fears it heeded not.

204. Kinds of Feet. — Feet may consist of one, two, or three syllables. In

Break, | break, | break,¹
On thy *cold* | gray *stones*, | O *sea*!

the three feet that compose the first line consist of one syllable each. In the second line the first foot has three syllables, the second and third have two. Feet commonly consist of two or three syllables, and are of two kinds: (1) those in which the accent comes at the beginning, (2) those in which the accent comes at the end. See the examples given below.

(1a) *Music* | *when* soft | *voices* | *die*

• *Vibrates* | *in* the | *memo*ry.²

(1b) *One* more un|fortunate,

Weary of | *breath*,

Rashly im|fortunate,

Gone to her | *death*.

(2a) The *sun* | that *brief* | *Decem*ber day

Rose *cheer*|less o|ver *hills* | of *gray*.

¹ Some prefer to consider such a foot as composed of two or three syllables, on the ground that the single syllable is pronounced in the time that is usually allotted to two or three. Cf. a whole note in music.

² This syllable is only lightly accented, because here the verse accent falls on a syllable that would not be accented in ordinary pronunciation.

- (2*b*) For a *lag*|*gard* in *love*,| and a *das*|*tard* in *war*
 Was to *wed*| the fair *El*|*len* of *brave*| *Lochinvar*.

Feet of two syllables are called trochaic or iambic, according as the accent falls on the first or second syllable. In (1*a*) all the feet except the last in each line are trochaic; in (2*a*) all the feet are iambic. Feet of three syllables are called dactylic or anapestic, according as the accent falls on the first or third syllable. In (1*b*) all the feet, except the last in the second and fourth lines, are dactylic. In (2*b*) all the feet are anapestic. Instead of applying to feet the adjectives trochaic, dactylic, iambic, and anapestic, we may call them trochees, dactyls, iambs, and anapests. All these terms come from the classical languages, and it is unfortunate that we have not simple English equivalents that can be used in their place.

EXERCISE

Classify the feet in the exercise following § 203.

205. Kinds of Lines. — Lines are classified according to the number of feet or accents which they contain. The following quotations illustrate lines of from one to eight feet in length :

- (1) And *what*| will the *rob*|*in* do *then*,
 Poor thing?
- (2) *Little Miss*| *Muffet*
 Sat on a | *tuffet*.
- (3) *Red* as a | *rose* is | *she*.
- (4) The *sun*| came *up*| upon | the *left*.
- (5) The *day*| is *come*| and *thou*| wilt *fly*| with *me*!
- (6) *Far* above| *ocean* and | *shore*, and the | *peaks* of the | *isles* and
 the | *mainlands*.
- (7) And *all*| the *signs*| in *heaven*| are *seen*| that *glad*| the *shep*-
 herd's heart.
- (8) *Comrades*,| *leave* me | *here* a | *little* | *while* as | *yet* 'tis | *early* |
 morn.

A line may be further described as trochaic, iambic, dactylic, or anapestic, in accordance with its general character. Thus (3),

above, may be called a dactylic line of three feet; (6) a dactylic line of six feet (or an hexameter); (4), (5), and (7) iambic lines of four, five, and seven feet respectively. (8) is a trochaic line of eight feet. The first line of (1) is virtually an anapestic line of three feet, though the first foot is an iamb; the second line consists of one foot, an iamb. (2) is both dactylic and trochaic.

EXERCISE

Classify, so far as possible, all the lines quoted in §§ 202-204, and those given in the preceding exercise.

206. Means of Avoiding Monotony in Verse.— It should be remembered that a poet's object is to present his thoughts in the most appropriate musical form, not to follow slavishly any mechanical system of arranging syllables and accents. It will be readily seen that the great danger attending the use of metre is that of producing, by regularity of accentuation, a monotonous effect. This is avoided in three ways:

(1) By employing a metrical system which combines lines of different lengths or different sorts. Thus in (a) below, though all the lines are iambic, the first consists of five feet; the second, of four; the third, of two; the fourth, of four again; and the fifth, like the first, of five.

- (a) There was a time when meadow, grove, and stream,
 The earth and every common sight,
 To me did seem
 Apparell'd in celestial light,
 The glory and the freshness of a dream.

— WORDSWORTH: *Intimations of Immortality*.

(2) By combining in the same line feet of different sorts. Thus the general character of Keats's *Ode to a Nightingale* is iambic, as in the stanza:

Thou wast not born for death, immortal bird!
 No hungry generations tread thee down;
 The voice I hear this passing night was heard
 In ancient days by emperor and clown:

Perhaps the self-same song that found a path
 Through the sad heart of Ruth, when, sick for home,
 She stood in tears amid the alien corn;
 The same that oft-times hath
 Charmed magic casements, opening on the foam
 Of perilous seas, in faery lands forlorn.

Here the feet not iambic are the first foot of the sixth line, a trochee; and the second foot of the last line, an anapest. But in many other lines of the poem the danger of monotony is avoided by more frequent substitutions of another sort of foot for an iamb, *e.g.* :

O for a draught of vintage, that hath been
 Cool'd a long age in the deep-delvèd earth,
 Tasting of Flora and the country-green,
 Dance, and Provençal song, and sun-burnt mirth!
 O for a beaker full of the warm South,
 Full of the true, the blushful Hippocrene.

Here all the lines open with dactyls or trochees.

(3) By allowing a pause necessary to the sense (called the verse-pause or caesura) to fall now in one part of the line, now in another. This is especially noticeable in unrhymed verse (blank verse). In the following passages, notice in what different feet the verse-pause, as denoted by the punctuation, falls :

At break of day | the College Portress came :
 She brought us Academic silks, | in hue
 The lilac, | with a silken hood to each,
 And zoned with gold ; | and now when these were on,
 And we as rich as moths from dusk cocoons,
 She, | curtseying her obeisance, | let us know
 The Princess Ida waited : | out we paced,
 I first, | and following thro' the porch that sang
 All round with laurel, | issued in a court
 Compact of lucid marbles, | boss'd with lengths
 Of classic frieze, | with ample awnings gay
 Betwixt the pillars, | and with great urns of flowers.

— TENNYSON : *The Princess*.

207. Hovering Accent.—It frequently happens in verse, particularly in a foot of two syllables, that the rhythmical or verse accent falls on one syllable, and what may be called an accent of sense or meaning on another. Thus, the opening lines of the third stanza of Wordsworth's *Ode on Intimations of Immortality*, which are intended to be iambic, should, metrically, be read as follows :

Now, *while* | the *birds* | thus *sing* | a *joy*ous song,
 And *while* | the *young* | lambs *bound*.

But *now*, in the first foot of the first line, and *lambs*, in the last foot of the second line, must also, for the sake of the sense, receive an accent. • We therefore read the lines :

Now, *while* | the *birds* | thus *sing* | a *joy*ous song,
 And *while* | the *young* | lambs *bound*.

In such cases, an accent may be said to be given to both syllables, or to *hover* between them.

EXERCISE

Note the accents, and classify the feet, in the following lines. In what cases has the author avoided monotony by the means mentioned in §§ 205 and 206?

Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting ;
 The Soul that rises with us, our life's Star,
 Hath had elsewhere its setting
 And cometh from afar ;
 Not in entire forgetfulness,
 And not in utter nakedness,
 But trailing clouds of glory do we come
 From God, who is our home :
 Heaven lies about us in our infancy !
 Shades of the prison-house begin to close
 Upon the growing boy,
 But he beholds the light, and whence it flows,
 He sees it in his joy ;
 The youth, who daily farther from the east
 Must travel, still is Nature's priest,

And by the vision splendid
Is on his way attended ;
At length the man perceives it die away,
And fade into the light of common day.

— WORDSWORTH: *Ode on Intimations of Immortality*.

208. Stanzas. — Stanzas are groups of lines arranged systematically. The system is based on the length or character of the lines, on the rhymes, or on both. For example, in the stanza quoted below, the first and third lines rhyme, and have four feet ; the second and fourth rhyme, and have three feet.

We cross the prairie as of old
The pilgrims crossed the sea,
To make the West, as they the East,
The homestead of the free.

— WHITTIER: *The Kansas Emigrants*.

A stanza of two rhyming lines is called a couplet. A stanza of four lines, rhyming or not rhyming, is called a quatrain. For a longer stanza, see that from Wordsworth quoted on page 239. There are many stanzas in English consisting of more than four lines, with more or less intricate systems of rhymes. Few of them have set names. Only one, the sonnet, is common, and that is rather a short poem of fourteen lines, rhymed according to a curious system, than a stanza.

IV. TABLE OF IRREGULAR VERBS

[The following table gives the principal parts of all the verbs in common use that exhibit irregularities. Forms in parenthesis are considerably less common than those not in parenthesis. Of two forms not in parenthesis the former is thought to be the more common. Some of the forms in parenthesis occur only in archaic English. The defective verbs (§ 104) are not included. For past participle forms in *en*, see page 143, note 1.]

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
abide	abode	abode
alight ¹	alit, alighted	alit, alighted
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked, awoke
be	was	been
bear	bore (bare)	borne (active), born (passive)
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began (begun)	begun
bend	bent (bended)	bent (bended)
bereave	bereft (bereaved)	bereft (bereaved)
beseech	besought (beseeched)	besought (beseeched)
bet	bet (betted)	bet (betted)
bid	bade (bad), bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound (bounden)
bite	bit	bitten, bit
bleed	bled	bled
bless	blessed, blest	blessed, blest
blow	blew	blown
break	broke (brake)	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought

¹ See *light* (to descend).

build	built (builted)	built (builted)
burn	burned (burnt)	burned (burnt)
burst	burst (bursted)	burst (bursted)
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (to cling)	cleaved, clave	cleaved
cleave (to split)	clove (clave), cleaved, cleft	clove, cloven, cleft, cleaved
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed (clad)	clothed (clad)
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	crowed (crew)	crowed
cut	cut	cut
dare ¹	dared, durst	dared
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug (digged)	dug (digged)
dive	dived, dove	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed
dress	dressed, drest	dressed, drest
drink	drank (drunk)	drunk, drunken (drank)
drive	drove	driven
dwelt	dwelt (dwelled)	dwelt (dwelled)
eat	ate (eat, pronounced ĕt)	eaten (eat)
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found

¹ The third person singular of the present is either *dare* or *dares*.
Dare is also sometimes used as a past tense.

flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot (forgot)	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
gilded	gilded (gilt)	gilded (gilt)
gird	girt, girded	girt, girded
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grave	graved	graved, graven
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved, hove	heaved
hew	hewed	hewed, hewn
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held (holden)
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knitted, knit	knitted, knit
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laded, laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leaned (leant)	leaned (leant)
leap	leaped (leapt)	leaped (leapt)
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (to incline)	lay	lain

light (to shine, illuminate)	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
light (to descend)	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mowed, mown [•]
need	needed, need ¹	needed
pay	paid	paid
pen (to inclose)	penned (pent)	penned (pent)
plead	pleaded, plead (pro- nounced plēd)	pleaded, plead
put	put	put
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
read	read	read
reave	reaved, reft	reaved, reft
reeve	reeved, rove	reeved, rove, roven
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang, rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	rived, riven
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
seethe	seethed (sod)	seethed (sodden)
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn
shape	shaped	shaped (shapen)
shave	shaved	shaved (shaven)
shear	sheared, shore	sheared, shorn

¹ In negative constructions, *e.g.*, "he *need* not have done so"; "he *could* not have done so."

shed	shed	shed
shine	shone (shined)	shone (shined)
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shred	shred, shredded	shred, shredded
shrive	shrived	shrived, shriven
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang, sung	sung
sink	sank, sunk	sunk, sunken
sit	sat (sate)	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid (slidden)
sling	slung	slung
slink	slank, slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt
smite	smote, smit	smitten, smit
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
speak	spoke (spake)	spoken
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded
spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt
spin	spun (span)	spun
spit	spit, spat	spat
split	split	split
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	staved, stove	staved, stove
stay	staid, stayed	staid, stayed
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung (stang)	stung

stink	stank, stunk	stunk
stride	strode	stridden (strid)
strike	struck	struck (stricken)
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strew (strow)	strewed	strewn (strown), strewed
swear	swore (sware)	sworn
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swelled (swollen)
swim	swam, swum	swum
swing	swung, swang	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore (tare)	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trod, trodden
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked
wax	waxed	waxed (waxen)
wear	wore (ware)	worn
weave	wove (weaved)	woven (wove, weaved), wedded (wed)
wed	wedded (wed)	wedded (wed)
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted
whet	whet, whetted	whet, whetted
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
work	worked, wrought	worked, wrought
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote (writ)	written (writ)

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

It is suggested that pupils have access to a good unabridged dictionary (the Century, the Standard, the International, or Worcester's), and be advised to consult it whenever they feel the need of more definite information about the form, history, or uses of any particular word or expression. The larger dictionaries are obviously best for this purpose. Pupils should be encouraged to refer likewise to good modern text-books on Grammar, e.g., Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar* (Ginn & Co.), Baskervill and Sewell's *English Grammar* (American Book Co.), West's *English Grammar* (The Macmillan Co.), Maxwell's *Advanced Lessons in English Grammar* (American Book Co.). Lounsbury's *History of the English Language* (revised edition, Henry Holt & Co., 1896), and either Emerson's *History of the English Language* or his *Brief History of the English Language* (The Macmillan Co.), may also be consulted with advantage on historical points.

Teachers will find more detailed and technical information in the great *New English Dictionary* (Clarendon Press), and in the larger authoritative works on English grammar, chief among which are Maetzner's monumental *Englische Grammatik* (3 vols., third edition, Berlin, 1880, about \$10; the English translation, published by Murray, 1874, is hard to get), and Sweet's *New English Grammar* (Part i.: Introduction, Phonology, and Accidence; Clarendon Press, 1892). The former is valuable mainly for its great mass of illustrative material, the latter for its system. Convenient also for reference with regard to system are Bain's *Higher English Grammar and Composition Grammar* (Henry Holt & Co.), though both are exceedingly dogmatic in tone and method. Other helpful works of reference are: Johan Storm's *Englische Philologie* (2 vols., Leipzig, 1896); Jespersen's *Progress in Language, with special reference to English* (The Macmillan Co., 1894); Sweet's *Short Historical English Grammar*

and *Primer of Spoken English* (Clarendon Press); Henry's *Short Comparative Grammar of English and German* (The Macmillan Co., 1894); Earle's *English Philology* (The Macmillan Co.); Skeat's *Principles of English Etymology*, first and second series (The Macmillan Co.); Morris's *Historical Outlines of English Accidence*, revised edition (The Macmillan Co., 1896); Kellner's *Historical Outlines of English Syntax* (The Macmillan Co.); Abbott's *Shakespearian Grammar* (The Macmillan Co.); Abbott's *How to Parse, An Attempt to apply the Principles of Scholarship to English Grammar* (an interesting attempt to treat our language as if it were Latin, Roberts Brothers); Wrightson's *Examination of the Functional Elements of the English Sentence* (The Macmillan Co.); Mason's *English Grammar* (a standard British text-book, The Macmillan Co.); Fitzedward Hall's *Modern English* (Scribner, 1873, out of print); Williams's *Our Dictionaries and Other English Language Topics and Some Questions of Good English* (Henry Holt & Co.). The last three volumes concern chiefly doubtful points of modern usage.

Teachers may also profit by some of the recent articles on the teaching of grammar in the various educational journals. Among these may be particularly mentioned Mr. Barbour's *History of English Grammar Teaching*, *Educational Review*, December, 1896; Miss Buck's interesting article, *The Sentence-Diagram*, considered from the point of view of psychology, *Ibid.*, March, 1897; Professor Allen's *English Grammar Viewed from All Sides*, *Education*, March, 1887; and Professor Emerson's paper, *The Teaching of English Grammar*, *School Review*, March, 1897. See also Professor Hinsdale's *Teaching the Language-Arts* (Appleton & Co.); Professor Laurie's lectures on *Language and Linguistic Method in the School* (Simpkin & Marshall); and the reports of the National Committees of Ten and Fifteen (American Book Co.). William Cobbett's *Grammar of the English Language*, "in a series of letters, intended for the use of schools and of young persons in general, but more especially for the use of soldiers, sailors, apprentices, and plough-boys," was first published in 1820, and is now antiquated in very many particulars. It has, however, a peculiar interest in that it was written in the United States, and its sturdy common-sense

and familiar but vigorous style have kept it from the usual fate of similar treatises, and still render it interesting and suggestive. The best edition is that published by Appleton & Co.

With reference to the value of Grammar as the crystallization of thought (see page 5, note 1), it is appropriate to quote an admirable passage from the section on the correlation of studies in the *Report of the Committee of Fifteen* (pages 48-9):

"Grammar is the science of language, and as the first of the seven liberal arts it has long held sway in school as the disciplinary study *par excellence*. A survey of its educational value, subjective and objective, usually produces the conviction that it is to retain the first place in the future. Its chief objective advantage is that it shows the structure of language, and the logical forms of subject, predicate, and modifier, thus revealing the essential nature of thought itself, the most important of all objects, because it is self-object. On the subjective or psychological side, grammar demonstrates its title to the first place by its use as a discipline in subtle analysis, in logical division and classification, in the art of questioning, and in the mental accomplishment of making exact definitions. Nor is this an empty, formal discipline, for its subject matter, language, is the product of the reason of a people, not as individuals, but as a social whole, and the vocabulary holds in its store of words the generalized experience of that people, including sensuous observation and reflection, feeling and emotion, instinct and volition."

With regard to the distinction between Grammar, rhetoric, and logic, referred to on page 7, it is recommended that the teacher keep clearly before the pupils' minds the fact that Grammar concerns itself only with the word-structure of what we say or write. If that structure is in accordance with English usage, Grammar can only analyze it into its parts, and show their mutual relations. Rhetoric assumes that the word-structure is grammatical, or in accordance with English usage, and concerns itself only with the effectiveness and beauty of the structure and the accuracy with which it represents a given idea. Grammar does not take into account the meaning of words, but merely their structural relation to each other. Rhetoric takes into account the meaning of words, and inquires whether they are

properly; clearly, and effectively used under given circumstances. Logic does not take into account the structural relations of words, nor their effectiveness. It has to do solely with the criticism of the judgments expressed by words, distinguishing sound arguments or sound processes of thought from unsound arguments or unsound and irrational processes of thought.

The *crux* of a text-book on English Grammar is the treatment of verb-phrases. On this point the writer hopes that his work is, in some respects, in advance of his predecessors, though he is far from maintaining that he has presented the subject in the simplest possible way. According to this method the pupil learns first what verb-phrases may be reasonably considered as falling into the conjugation of the verb. Of the remainder he next learns which are indicative in force. Those that are left may safely be considered as subjunctive in force, and should, as a rule, not be analyzed, in form or force, with any attempt at thoroughness. Only a mature person, with the resources of a wide reading at his command, can classify subjunctive verb-phrases with anything like success.

The appendix on phonology is inserted in the hope that some schools may undertake the general survey of the subject recommended by the Committee of Ten. Further information may be best obtained from Soames's *Introduction to Phonetics* (a useful general work, The Macmillan Co.); Sweet's *Primer of Spoken English* (a suggestive smaller work, Clarendon Press); Sweet's *Primer of Phonetics* (Clarendon Press); Sweet's *History of English Sounds* (Clarendon Press); and Ellis's *Early English Pronunciation*. The last two are exhaustive works on historical English phonetics. The international periodical for phonetics is *Phonetische Studien*. It contains many articles and reviews written in English and on English phonetics.

Very little has been written on American pronunciation. Everything of value is mentioned in the bibliographical lists of *Dialect Notes*, the publication of the American Dialect Society, or among the papers published in *Dialect Notes* itself. Miss Soames's book contains a somewhat more extended bibliography (also for French and German), and in Sievers' *Grundzüge der Phonetik* is a fairly exhaustive bibliography of the whole subject.

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